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ABSTRACT

Inter-disciplinary attitude toward curricular materials and analysis of their relevance to Appalachian needs are introduced. A two-day brainstorming session of expert educators in reading, sociology, adult education, and nutrition exploring relationship between various curricular materials and Appalachian experience is summarized. (NF)

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Appalachian Needs and Curriculum Materials

Editor: Husain Qazilbash

Appalachian Adult Education Center
Bureau for Research and Development
Morehead State University
Morehead, Kentucky 40351

The Appalachian Adult Education Center (AAEC) is a multi-purpose research and demonstration agency dedicated to the improvement of the quality of adult basic education throughout the thirteen state Appalachian region.

Toward that end, the Center conducts research on the nature of the adult learner, administers demonstrations of exemplary adult learning programs, trains teachers and administrators in modern methods and techniques of adult instruction, and fosters the development and spread of preferred adult education practices particularly suited to the needs of rural undereducated adults.

PREFACE

This publication marks the beginning of a series reporting research, experimentation and demonstration activities of the Appalachian Adult Education Center. (AAEC) Although the AAEC publication series will be devoted primarily to adult education in Appalachia, it has been our experience that our findings have significance and application to the national program of adult basic education. Persons engaged in the field of adult education and those particularly concerned with the development of the Appalachian region should find this first monograph, and indeed the whole series, especially informative.

Appalachian Needs and Curriculum Materials introduces the inter-disciplinary point of view to curricular materials and analyzes their relevance to the unique galaxy of Appalachian needs. The document summarizes a two-day brainstorming session of expert educators in reading, sociology, adult education, and nutrition who joined with the professional staff of the AAEC to explore the relationship between various curricular materials and the Appalachian experience. Pre-conference preparation included reviews of select Appalachian studies and literature and a general overview of the field of adult basic education curriculum materials. Conference discussions yielded an exciting exchange of ideas and provoked serious thought regarding the interplay of the various disciplines represented by the participants. Post-conference activity culminated in the preparation of papers by participants for presentation in our first monograph and represent an orientation to the complexities of the region and subsequent adult basic education curricular material needs.

An abstract of, *The Appalachian Compact*, an address delivered by Dr. Adron Doran, President of Morehead State University, has been included to further assist the reader in understanding the regional and national implications of the AAEC publication series.

George W. Eyster
Executive Director
AAEC

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THE APPALACHIAN COMPACT--IN PROSPECT AND FACT

*Adron Doran**
Morehead State University

The Appalachian Compact is a concept of a particular region originating with a single state, the Commonwealth of Kentucky, combining the resources to plan a program for development. That sounds as if I am going to be a braggart--braggart in his speech--and if it sounds that way, its because I am.

Eastern Kentucky is the cradle of the Appalachian Concept that is now the pattern for Northeastern United States, the Ozarks, and other regions of America.

Eastern Kentucky experienced its worst flood in history in February, 1957. Prior to 1957, there existed various local or area development groups. In fact, as early as September, 1956, civic grounds of the region formed the Eastern Kentucky Regional Development Council.

Under the provisions of the state's regional planning laws, a two - hundred member citizens' committee was created, public hearings were held, and petitions were signed and presented to the Governor of the Commonwealth supporting the idea of a regional planning commission with legal status.

In August, 1957, Lt. Governor Harry Lee Waterfield, acting in the absence of Governor Albert Benjamin Chandler, appointed a nine - member commission known as the Eastern Kentucky Regional Planning Commission. The membership of the Commission was composed of the following:

1. B. F. Reed, Drift, Kentucky, coal company executive, a member of the Morehead State University Board of Regents.

2. Rexford Blazer, Ashland, Kentucky, President of Ashland Oil Company.

3. S. C. Van Curon, Harlan, Kentucky, newspaper editor, now in Frankfort.

4. L. O. Davis, Hazard, Kentucky, realty developer.

5. Adron Doran, Morehead State University president.

6. W. M. Huie, Corbin, Kentucky, Christian minister.

7. Harry Laviers, Paintsville, Kentucky, coal company executive, former member of the Morehead State University Board of Regents.

8. Alex Spencer, West Liberty, Kentucky, physician.

9. R. H. Worden, Pikeville, Kentucky, oil gas executive.

On June 1, 1958, the Commission appointed John Whisman as Executive Director. He is now the representative of the states as co-chairman of the Appalachian Commission.

The Eastern Kentucky Regional Planning Commission represented a thirty-two county area in the Appalachian region of Kentucky and adopted for itself the following objectives:

1. Eventual creation of a master plan for the region.

2. Creation of regional master development action program.

*Dr. Doran is President and Professor of Administration, Supervision, and Higher Education, Morehead State University, Morehead, Kentucky.

3. Advisory coordination between various agencies of federal, state and local government, as well as private and civic organizations, business firms, organizations and private citizens.

4. Stimulation of new ideas and action and provision of leadership to encourage interest and informed citizen action and support for various phases of the development program.

5. Provisions of public information on all matters related to improvements of any kind in the area.

6. Stimulation of individual community development and planning programs.

After two years of rather extensive hearings and discussions with local, state and federal officials, the Commission developed, published and presented to the Kentucky General Assembly what came to be known as "Program 60--Decade of Action for Progress in Eastern Kentucky."

However, the report had more and farther-reaching effects than merely motivating a program of action for the local communities and the eastern region of Kentucky. The report moved the leadership of the state and nation to take cognizance of problems which required state and federal action to solve.

Let me back up a moment and point out to you a few of the problems which we identified immediately:

First, we discovered that we were talking about an "Under Developed Area" instead of a "Depressed Area." The federal government was talking about a depressed area at that time, and legislation was under consideration to relieve depressed areas. Well, Eastern Kentucky was not depressed--it was just absolutely underdeveloped (had resources galore, but nothing had been done to develop them; instead, these resources had been exploited).

A second factor that came into focus immediately was the "isolation" of the region, primarily because of the absence of highways or the direction of those highways. There was only one direction for them to run, and that was the direction which the hollows ran or the creek beds ran; you didn't change the course of the creek and, therefore, of the highways. The road problem was critical to us.

Thirdly, flood control was a critical problem, because we had just come through in 1957 the most disastrous experience that the people of this community and region had ever undergone. We also found a great void in our operation because of the lack of trained manpower. All of these factors contributed to a low level of industrial development and to a low level of income for all people.

We talked to the state and national chiefs of the Departments of Highways and the Bureaus of Roads about building roads where highways had never run. They never heard before of constructing highways where highways had not run because the state and federal authorities said we must determine the place to build roads on the basis of the traffic count, and this is the way we build roads--on the basis of the traffic count. We keep a count of the traffic; and if the traffic is heavy enough, we will improve the road. Now we said, how in the world are you going to count the traffic where there "ain't" no roads. By these standards, we are going to remain as we now are.

If you want somebody to wrestle with, second only to the Chief of Federal Bureaus of Roads, get the Corps of Army Engineers, and talk to them about building dams to control floods on creeks and rivers and streams of the mountainous areas of Eastern Kentucky. They say, "We cannot talk with you about building a dam here or there because we have what we call a 'Cost Benefit Ratio'; and we have to calculate the ratio of the value between the land that we protect by the flood and the cost of the dam." How in the world could you go about calculating the cost of the lands that are flooded every year and the businesses that the people have established in that community that have been flooded every

year and the homes that have been flooded and that people have been driven from? When the waters receded, those people woundn't even wait for the return of a dove; they just went back as the waters went down. Talk about this need being determined on a cost benefit ratio!--you can't benefit the people until you build the dam, and you can't tell the value of the land and business and whether the folks will build homes and stay there until you stop the flood.

Now Congress, as you know, had already passed Public Law 815 and Public Law 874. These were acts of Congress to channel more money into areas impacted by federal installations. We were drawing considerable money in Kentucky because of Ft. Knox, for this Army installation had impacted that area with children of federally employed people and the local school districts could not provide educational opportunities for them. The local school board couldn't build enough school buildings for the students; so, consequently, Congress passed Public Laws 815 and 874 to appropriate money to the school districts in these impacted areas. Because of federal installations and activities, we were perfectly at ease about having solved all of these problems for which the federal government was responsible and had an interest.

The Eastern Kentucky Regional Planning Commission reminded the federal government of the idea that we should take the same philosophy and the same principles that it had proposed in helping to finance local and state systems in areas that are impacted by poverty or large families with low incomes. It sounds as reasonable to me to talk about one as it did the other; and would you believe me if I told you that on April 21, 1964, Hon. Carl Perkins, Congressman from this district, Chairman of the House Committee on Education and Labor, as head of a subcommittee invited me to testify on the consideration they were giving to House Resolution 10440 that became the Economic Opportunity Act. I testified before the congressional committee on this principle that the federal government had as much responsibility to channel money into school districts impacted by poverty or low-income families as it did to distribute money under the law for areas impacted by federal installations. This became the principle on which the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 was finally built and adopted. This was the basis on which federal money under Title I is being distributed to the public schools of America--on the basis of how impacted they are by poverty--and this has been the salvation to many of the public school districts of America.

The recommendations of the Eastern Kentucky Regional Planning Commission are found in the report "Program 60."

Eastern Kentucky is a part of the clearly definable Underdeveloped Appalachian Region, and its problems are integral parts of the problems of that region. These problems of the Appalachian Region may be described in basic groups, very similar to those described for Eastern Kentucky. However, it should be pointed out that Eastern Kentucky represents a more intense expression of the problems involved than is found in any similarly sized and populated area in the Appalachians. Developmental patterns and pilot projects initiated in Eastern Kentucky may have application in all parts of the Appalachian Region and will benefit from a region-wide program.

APPALACHIAN STATES DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY

It is of importance to the success of a developmental program for Eastern Kentucky that a similar program be applied throughout the greater Appalachian Region. The Commission, therefore, recommends that the Governor of the Commonwealth invite the governors of the other Appalachian states to a conference for the purpose of organizing an Appalachian States Development Authority. The Commission will prepare a brief proposal setting forth the nature and functions of such an authority and the procedures by which it

might be organized, and will request advice and assistance from the Kentucky Department of Economic Development, the Kentucky Legislative Research Commission, the Attorney General of the Commonwealth of Kentucky, and from other departments and agencies of the Commonwealth, in creating a detailed prospectus for the Appalachian States Development Authority, to be presented to the conference of Appalachian Governors. The conference should be planned around the consideration of the specific and complete proposal, and an effort should be made within the conference to reach agreement by the states upon general terms for the creation of an effective beginning authority. It would then remain only for the separate states to take such action as necessary for ratification of their participation, as required by terms of the council and by due process of law affected in each state. Details of the proposal beyond those necessary to the initial organization of the authority, unless readily agreed to could be deferred for consideration until after the establishment of the authority, as part of the formulation of the authority's program.

In a conference statement of justification of need for such an authority, it should be acknowledged that many of the economic and other problems of common concern to state areas of the Greater Appalachian Region are also common to the entire southeastern region of the United States. However, this acknowledgment should serve as a basis for the assertion that the Appalachion Region is, of itself, a unique region of common and special problems, distinctly and more intensely affecting the living standards of the resident population than do the problems common to all the southeastern states, and that these special problems and conditions relate directly or indirectly to the underdeveloped character of the Appalachian Region. Thus, the point would be made that the underdeveloped Appalachian Region justifies and requires the establishment of a special and comprehensive region-wide program of development.

The Eastern Kentucky Regional Planning Commission created a special Educational Advisory Council, composed of 35 professional educators and lay leaders, of which I served as Chairman. On the recommendation of the Advisory Council, the Commission approved the following items:

1. Recommend to the 1960 session of the Kentucky General Assembly passage of a general sales tax designed to provide adequate revenue to meet urgent needs in raising salaries of teachers and in making other improvements necessary to the improvement of the system of the entire Commonwealth. (Three percent enacted in 1960 and five percent enacted in 1968.)

2. Seek expansion and improvement of the Vocational Education Program in the region, in accordance with plans proposed by the Bureau of Vocational Education, with emphasis upon expansion of existing facilities and the establishment of additional extension centers. Give consideration to the establishment of a loan program for students completing a year's work at extension centers or in central schools, and who need assistance to continue the second year of training which must be taken in the central area or at state schools. Urge the expansion of adult training programs within the Vocational programs (accomplished by succeeding legislation).

3. Seek establishment of an adequate Vocational Rehabilitation Center (accomplished).

4. Recommend to the United States Office of Education that a special Guidance Institute program be set up in the Appalachian Regions of affected states, to deal realistically with the specific problems of these regions which are more intense in nature than those of others (still needed).

5. Give special study to the provisions

of pending legislation for federal aid to education to determine whether such provisions would provide realistic benefit to Eastern Kentucky and to draft revisions where the need might be apparent (accomplished by 1965 acts).

6. Give special study to means for improvement of business administration and organization of school systems and to such matters as school architecture, especially to those related to regional conditions (little had been done).

7. Consider the place of institutions of higher education in Eastern Kentucky in the conduct of special research programs related to resources, markets, people, and all matters concerned in the overall development of the region, and to the possibility that these institutions might join with other interests to sponsor the establishment of a Resources Research Institute for the region. (Colleges and universities have moved in this direction.)

8. Stimulate more forestry training at all levels in Kentucky and take a close look at vocational agriculture programs to bring it more in line with needs of Eastern Kentucky. Request the 1960 General Assembly to finance a program of qualified training for foresters, between Kentucky schools and qualified forestry schools of other states (accomplished in 1960 session).

9. Expand and improve Adult Education programs of all kinds and give careful consideration to the continued conduct of a program of special short courses, primarily for adults (accomplished).

Acting on the recommendations of the Eastern Kentucky Regional Planning Commission, the Honorable Bert T. Combs, Governor of the Commonwealth of Kentucky, persuaded the Honorable J. Millard Tawes, Governor of Maryland, to call and host a conference of Appalachian Governors to meet in Baltimore on May 20, 1960.

This meeting was devoted to:

> exploration of possibilities for accomplishment through associated or cooperative action of the Appalachian states, especially concerning intensive economic and social problems, as well as developmental opportunities, in several disadvantaged areas of the Appalachian Region.

An interim staff committee was appointed which met in Atlanta, Georgia, on September 21, 1960, in conjunction with the staffs of the Council of State Governments and the Southern Regional Education Board. The staff committee planned a second conference of Appalachian Governors to be held in Lexington, Kentucky, on October 17 and 18, 1960, which Governor Combs called and chaired. The governors and their staffs from Alabama, Georgia, Maryland, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, and Kentucky attended the Lexington conference.

The two conferences held by the Appalachian Governors resulted in action by the Area Redevelopment Administration designed "to focus particular attention upon the opportunities as well as the problems of the Appalachian Region as a whole," in line with a statement issued by President John Kennedy on May 8, 1961.

On April 9, 1963, President Kennedy established the "President's Appalachian Regional Commission" and named Franklin D. Roosevelt, Jr., the Undersecretary of Commerce, as chairman.

In establishing the Commission, the President recognized the intense economic distress of the region and the expression of the Conference of Appalachian Governors calling for a new and joint commitment of

efforts by federal, state, and local, as well as private, agencies to deal more effectively with this program.

The President directed that the members of the Commission be chosen representing each of the federal agencies concerned and each of the states involved.

The Commission was charged to prepare a comprehensive program for the economic development of the Appalachian Region; to consult with the governors of the affected states and with the heads of appropriate federal agencies; and to lay before the President a report stating its objectives and the organization, action and financing steps required to initiate it, prior to December 31, 1963.

Of course, you know a bullet from Lee Harvey Oswald's rifle assassinated President Kennedy on November 22, 1963, and he did not have the opportunity to receive and act on the report. However, President Lyndon B. Johnson recommended to the 1965 session of Congress legislation to formalize the Appalachian Regional Commission.

When President Johnson signed the Appalachian Regional Development Act into law, Senate Bill 3, on March 19, 1965, he called it the "truest example of creative federalism." I have in my office one of the pens used by the President in signing the act.

The first Executive Director of the Commission, John Sweeney, called the act "an experiment in Appalachia" where, for the first time, a group of twelve governors and a representative of the President of the United States met together as members of a regional commission to make decisions across the board "in nearly every field of policy affecting the future of Appalachia and how state and federal resources can be employed to bring about the social and economic development of the region."

Broadly speaking, the experiment had two aims:

First, to help the 13-state mountain region win for itself the ability to contribute to and compete for its fair share of national growth and prosperity;

And, secondly, to demonstrate that the separate elements of the American political system----federal, state and local--can work effectively with each other and with private interests to help Appalachia attain full potential.

The Commission has authorized two advisory committees: one in Health and the other in Education, composed of appointees by the federal coordinator and the governors.

I hold membership on the Advisory Committee on Education by appointment of the Governor of the Commonwealth of Kentucky; and Mr. Chip Foltz is the executive director of this committee.

Morehead State University has been successful in soliciting the support of the Executive Director of the Educational Advisory Committee in helping us to establish on the campus:

1. A program of computerized instruction in arithmetic.

2. Adult Basic Education Demonstration Center, which to me is one of the greatest things that has happened to Morehead and the Region since Cora Wilson Stewart started the Moonlight schools in this county in 1911.

May I give you a further sidelight to my own experience in this program? When the Basic Education Act was before Congress, we brought the Perkins subcommittee to this campus for a public hearing, and we hosted a three-day conference in Morehead. Two of the distinguished people that you read about today besides Mr. Perkins are Congressman Pucinsky from Chicago and Senator Griffin from Michigan. These were the people who were materially interested and participated in this hearing.

Now I don't know whether that is what

you wanted to know, whether you already knew it, and whether I have been successful in pulling together what you yet will study; but let me conclude by saying to you that, so far as I am concerned, we have over a long period of time represented what John Donne wrote in his prose that he called "Devotion XVII."

> No man is an island, entire of itself; every man is a piece of the continent, a part of the main; if a clod be washed away by the sea, Europe is the less, as well as if a promontory were . . . . and man's death diminishes me, because I am involved in mankind; and therefore never send to know for whom the bell tolls; it tolls for thee.

Somebody wrote the words of a song and in a little more poetic fashion:

No man is an island
No man is an island
No man stands alone,
Each man's joy is joy to me,
Each man's heart is my own.

We need one another,
So I will defend each man
As my brother
Each man as my friend.

If I had to write the philosophy of the Appalachian Regional concept, it would be--"No Man Is An Island" regardless of whether he is in the preschool group or in the adult group that we are trying to educate. I think, that as we look at the Appalachian Commission in retrospect, how difficult and cold the days were, how dark the nights were, how tall the mountains were, and how turbulent the streams were as we navigated them and crossed them to finally come out with local, state, and federal governments of thirteen states working together to do the things that are being done for our people, who were at that time islands and were isolated and NO MAN knew for whom the bell tolled.

I commend you, ladies and gentlemen, for your efforts and time, and I hope you can do a better job when you go back to your homes from this Conference.

Thank you!

APPALACHIAN NEEDS AND CURRICULUM MATERIALS

*Husain Qazilbash**

Specific suggestions for curriculum development for adult basic education (ABE) in Appalachia will be discussed by various persons in this monograph. Two areas that need consideration in Appalachian ABE are (1) the use of educational technology and (2) the development of language as it applies to cognitive change.

In 1440 when Gutenberg printed the first textbook with movable type, the ground work was laid for the greatest forward surge in education that the world has known. Five centuries ago the book was considered the greatest revolution in education and the only curriculum material. Today we are seeing another forward surge at a much faster rate. The electronic and space age is changing our traditional notion of education, the role of teacher, the role of classroom and the nature of the learning process. The environment in which we live and the curriculum materials must be re-examined in the light of new technology.

There are interesting parallels between today's incipient revolution and the revolution of five centuries ago. The printed book was a form of automation, a kind of teaching device. No longer did the students need to cluster at the feet of their master as he read to them from a precious and laboriously produced manuscript. Each student could have his own copy of the text to study in private at his own speed and at a convenient time. No doubt it seemed to many that teacher could be permanently replaced. Although he wasn't replaced, his role was changed. He could now counsel, explain, and expand the mass of information and knowledge that the book had made available to all. I believe that once again the role of the teacher can be changed for the better by utilizing the new curriculum materials and making education relevant to the needs of the learners. The designers of Adult Basic Education should address themselves to the following objectives:

1. Identification of purposes that educational institutions and programs in Appalachia could seek to attain.

2. Discovery of educational experiences that will serve to attain those purposes.

3. Determination of the most effective way of organizing these experiences.

4. Evaluation of educational experiences by educators to determine if the stated purposes are being attained.

Education has evolved through the reaction of people to their environment. The two basic elements essential for a well-rounded educational program are the learner and his environment. Between the learner and his environment is the process of education which must provide a logical, sequential and progressive program or curriculum.

A logical, sequential and progressive program should be developed on the following criteria: Existing curriculum materials and modern educational technology should be incorporated where appropriate. Below are some examples of educational technology:

1. Modern electronic machines that have been particularly successful in language instruction.

2. Programmed learning instructional materials.

3. Computer assisted instruction and CAI terminal booths for rural areas.

*Dr. Qazilbash is Curriculum Specialist with the Appalachian Adult Education Center, and Director of the Institute on the Aging at Morehead State University, Morehead, Kentucky.

4. Centralized tape libraries from which local systems could select an entire course of instruction and specialized iectures prepared by the best qualified teachers in the field.

5. Close circuit television systems and local programs for each student to utilize the course materials that can be made available.

6. Individual video tape-players to hear and see, to enable each student to utilize the course materials that can be made available.

7. Access to computers for retrieving information.

8. A flexible open circuit educational television network to bring a variety of current event type instruction to the homes of the people, particularly in rural areas.

Richer and larger urban areas have done a remarkable job in providing modern technological curricula, but quite often it is argued that for the poverty-stricken isolated rural areas like that of Appalachia it is not feasible or such devices are too expensive. The cost of educating a child for his generation and an adult for the present generation is a positive investment in human resources. In fact, compared to the negative investment we shoulder in attempting to rehabilitate wasted lives, it will probably be a much easier and cheaper investment in education to provide facilities to the rural areas at the initial low cost than for the present underprivileged adults who can, by virtue of these educational facilities, see for themselves the advantages and the disadvantages of education for themselves and their children, rather than to rehabilitate their children when they grow old.

The savings from not investing in these electronic devices, teaching aids, and teacher salaries in rural areas are in the long run not savings. In our changing technological society, the cost that we have to pay for rehabilitation of an undereducated or uneducated adult will be far greater a few years from now, and the educational cost of an uneducated and undereducated adult in the future will be beyond our conceptualization.

Our problem today is quality, quantity, and cost, with emphasis on quality. The existing technological inventions and teaching aids in educational curricula should be applied nationwide and with great emphasis to the rural areas and the disadvantaged. Programs can be greatly enriched, improved, and expanded by the resources and devices that have been developed.

Cognitive change, reading and language development are tightly bound together.

One difference between an adult and an infant as far as cognitive functioning is concerned is the difference in the ability to think, and the process of thinking seems to be associated with the process of language development. The development of language is positively related to cognitive development and thus to the process of thinking.

There are studies that support the view that development of vocabulary and grammar in the process of language learning is not only necessary for an individual to communicate more effectively, but also that grammar is responsible for the development of higher mental organization and vocabulary is responsible for understanding and comprehension.

If we consider how important language is to thinking, what if it would cease to function. In every cultural setting, each normal individual goes through the process of language development as he develops a mind capable of thinking. The cultural settings of Germany and France, for example, in which the emphasis on language learning in its various aspects has been greater in the early life than in some other settings, have produced highly balanced and organized minds. This is evident from the scientific invention and contributions by these nations. In our own society persons with higher levels of formal education and well-developed language are, in general,

capable of thinking, understanding, conceptualizing, and confronting life situation at a higher and more logical level than those with no education or lower education and less-developed language who are engaged in our ABE programs. If my contention is logical that the development of language skills in ABE students needs to be re-examined, then one primary responsibility of ABE teachers should be to help the adult student realize the necessity of developing his language as a long-range goal. Once the student has conceptualized this goal, the curriculum can be developed around it, and a logical, sequential, relevant progression of curriculum can be developed by the teacher in cooperation with the student. The participant will then hopefully, in respect to the major language and his dialect within the language, bring about cognitive changes.

The fast-changing space age and technological achievements of today not only demand of educators a knowledge of what to teach but how to teach how to learn. If we can teach how to learn and provide the best possible educational technology to facilitate that learning, great steps would have been made to curricula that meet the needs of individuals in Appalachia as well as elsewhere.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

*John K. Sherk, Jr.**

In keeping with the general theme of the Conference, "Curriculum Needs and Materials for the Appalachian Region," it is probably useful to note at the outset that very little has been done to relate the known basic needs of the Appalachian poor to the program of study in the ABE classroom.

Curriculum is succinctly defined as a "course of study in school." By observation one must conclude that the "course of study" used in most ABE classrooms is the same, in many respects, as the course of study used in the public schools. Furthermore, the physical, social and pedagogic arrangements for delivering the course of study have been borrowed largely intact from the public school model. Even the teacher in the ABE classroom has a somewhat familiar, if weary, countenance.

The public school curriculum model has much to commend it. It has, among other things, provided a whole nation the opportunity for the attainment of what would have been considered in 1900 (and in most underdeveloped nations today) a college-equivalent education. And it has produced a tremendously powerful middle class, capable of banding together for the common good in times of stress, but mindful of the worth and dignity of its manifold origins.

Yet there is inherent in the application of the public school curriculum model to ABE what could be regarded as a fatal flaw. The fact is that the public school model is a middle-class model, and the large percentage of students in ABE classes are not members of the middle class. Furthermore, the majority of these persons have encountered the public school curriculum previously and they have not been successful with it.

It should not be interpreted that the issue of social class has been injected as an issue per se, although some would argue that education is "operational sociology," and that, if educated, one loses his place in the "lower class." Rather, social class has been mentioned only to indicate that some of the relevant, meaningful content which might be included in the ABE curriculum is not included either because the middle-class curriculum developer is not aware that it exists or because it is not acceptable within the frame of reference of the middle-class curriculum model.

Designers of curriculum for ABE should address themselves to the following types of considerations:

1. What content should be included?
2. How should the content be presented?
3. Who should present the content?
4. What should serve as the criterion variables by which success could be determined?

The remainder of this paper will deal speculatively with possible answers to these questions.

I. What Content Should Be Included?

Educators have assumed that they know the curriculum that is best for children and adolescents to learn. While some are questioning this assertion today, the general public still seems to agree that they do.

Adult educators have assumed that they

*Dr. John Sherk is Chairman of the Reading Department, University of Missouri, Kansas City, Missouri.

know the curriculum that is best for undereducated adults to learn. However, it has become clear that they don't.

This error in judgment concerning relevant and necessary curriculum content relates basically to the lack of research on the educational needs and characteristics of undereducated adults. In many respects, educational research on undereducated adults is the most difficult type of research to accomplish. The population is difficult to sample for one thing. The variability within the population is tremendous, whatever variable one chooses to examine. Nevertheless, the consequences of not having a plentiful supply of valid and relevant research evidence upon which to base decisions concerning the content of the ABE curriculum are plain to see: empty classrooms, unmotivated students, poor results of recruiting drives, and predictably high dropout rates in ABE programs.

There is another reason why relevant and necessary curriculum has not been developed for ABE programs. This has to do with the current emphasis upon the preparation of instructional objectives to measure intended outcomes of the instructional program. According to Mager (1962), one must be prepared to state what he wants the learner to be able to do in performance terms to demonstrate that he has learned what he is supposed to learn. This strategy is clearly based on the assumption that the preparer of the objective and the learner have had a similar set of experiences with the world and share a frame of reference--that is, they are of the same social class. The preparer selects from his frame of reference a desirable objective and includes it in the curriculum; the learner may see no relevance whatsoever in demonstrating in performance terms that he has attained the objective because there is nothing in his frame of reference with which to relate this new, isolated response in his repertoire.

The teaching of reading to undereducated adults serves as an example of this phenomenon. Most selectors of instructional objectives very quickly seize upon the attainment of the skill of reading as an immediate objective. They proceed on the assumption that the adult, once he learns to read, will use reading as a tool for learning content subjects, will use reading as a means of satisfying certain vocational requirements, will use reading as a means by which he can better fulfill his citizenship obligations, and will use reading as a means of increasing his personal pleasure through recreational reading, thereby widening his "window on the world" through books. This is the manner in which reading is used by members of the middle class. But experience shows that frequently in classes of undereducated adults, when they have attained proficiency in reading skill, the skill remains "isolated" in their repertoire. No one they know outside the classroom reads anything. They know no one who reads textbooks, is required to read anything as a part of his daily work, buys and reads a newspaper, fiction or non-fiction books or magazines. There is no model for reading in their lives, and very likely no time for it. Therefore, reading is regarded as something done in the classroom, having no relation whatsoever to living in the real world.

There is no quarrel with Mager and the preparation of instructional objectives. The practice and strategy has done as much to advance the concept of learner participation in learning as any other strategy yet devised. The difficulty lies in the assumption that the preparer of the objective knows what the desirable and worthy outcomes are for the ABE population. It is abundantly clear that this assumption remains unfounded. It is also clear that the strategy of preparing instructional objectives is a class-bound activity, the efficacy of which depends upon a close correlation between the background experience of the selector of the objectives and the experience of the learner.

The question of "what the content of the ABE curriculum should be" remains. If educators are not able to create a necessary

and relevant curriculum for ABE students, from what source will the selection of content come? The most obvious source is the ABE student himself; his statement of need and his opinion become the criterion of the relevance of the content. His need statement and his opinion become the stimuli which produce the response of the educator which is to create or assemble materials which the adult needs. Sometimes the adult learner will choose objectives and content that the curriculum creator would himself have chosen for the adult. But many times the priority and sequence designated by the adult of what is to be learned will differ from the professional's choice. The undereducated adult should be allowed a chance to learn first what he thinks is most important for him to learn, even if it violates all notions we as educators have of sequence and priority. In addition, curriculum developers in ABE should be prepared to accept as legitimate learning activities topics and events which are not dealt with in the normal middle-class frame of reference. This could mean dealing with controversial issues in the classroom, acceptance of terms and vocabulary commonly used in the streets, the probability of verbal and physical confrontations in the classroom, etc. In short, the style in the classroom which is most likely to be meaningful and compelling for the undereducated adult is that which approximates the style of his life outside the classroom--casual, literal and by middle-class standards perhaps, somewhat vulgar.

A final note on this aspect of the development of curriculum for ABE classrooms. The behaviorist's concept of "shaping" is useful in this context. Certainly the function of a proper educational program should be to enlighten, uplift and enrich the learner. By gradually reinforcing those desirable middle-class qualities of behavior displayed by the learner over time within the classroom, the more conventional types of educational programming can be implemented and progress toward the more formal routine and efficacious educational strategies can be made. But experience has shown that tolerance for this formalization of learning activity cannot be expected to develop spontaneously in the undereducated adult, and insistence upon it has driven undereducated adults away and reduced the effectiveness of our programs.

II. How Should Curriculum Content Be Presented?

There are numerous patterns which can be employed in teaching adults. The one most frequently encountered in ABE is the one used in the elementary and secondary public school; that is, a teacher or teachers present to the whole class material from a textbook. An adaptation of this pattern is where the class is broken down into several smaller groups for the purpose of receiving instruction. In this design, the curriculum is in most cases that which is presented in the textbook, and neither the student nor the teacher is inclined to deviate from it. Many thousands of undereducated adults have in the past learned by this procedure of presenting the curriculum content. It is a tested, time-honored method. But this procedure does not satisfy the needs of all undereducated adults. The curriculum developer should consider alternatives to the whole-class approach. These alternate approaches imply different materials and patterns of organization for instruction.

Economic realities and the life-style of many undereducated adult students make the search for new patterns of teaching a necessity. Many undereducated adults, particularly males, must hold two menial jobs in order to provide for their families. If they also maintain the normal responsibilities as husbands and fathers, and time is allowed for recreation, very little is left for improving educational level, regardless of how excellent the program may be. Add to this the burden in the traditional classroom of "keeping up with the class," and one can begin to understand why undereducated adult males stay away from ABE classes in large numbers.

Furthermore, "going to school" and the "value of an education" are not closely correlated in the thinking of the average undereducated adult, the former being much less esteemed than the latter. An example of this might be the adult male who has been told that, if he can achieve a high school equivalency certificate, opportunity for a better job will be extended; he goes to an ABE class to find out that he should begin working at the third grade level. He knows the value of the education because that means a better job to him and he goes to school to begin. But the prospect of having to go to school for five or more years simply has no appeal, or if it does, the daily grind of living soon serves to diminish his enthusiasm for it.

Several alternatives to the standard whole class and textbook instructional approach have been developed, but the general strategy or pattern common to the alternatives is individualization of the instructional program. The difference between the plans is how the individualization is achieved. Before examining some of these plans, some comments on individualization of instruction are in order. The major reason why individualization of instruction is seen as the most desirable alternate strategy to the traditional whole-class instructional plan is because of the very large range of individual differences found in the ABE classroom. In the public elementary or secondary school it is possible to control the range of individual differences to some extent by administrative manipulation. That is, pupils are grouped on the basis of (a) chronological age, (b) number of years in school (grade), (c) sometimes IQ, and (d) sometimes all of the above plus reading level. This somewhat mechanical administrative procedure does considerably narrow the range of individual differences the teacher meets in the classroom. However, in ABE programs it is not always possible to group students effectively using any of these indicators. Adults are found to have a wide age range in the average ABE class, a wide range of difference in the number of grades previously completed in school, a wide range in measured intelligence and range of reading ability from zero through high school level. It is well known that as people grow older the individual differences they displayed in childhood become more pronounced. The function of living, like that of a good education, is to make people more different than alike.

It is unrealistic, therefore, to expect an ABE teacher, who has been trained for service in the public schools and who very possibly has had experience in the public schools, and who has become accustomed to dealing with students more homogeneously than heterogeneously grouped, to handle with grace and precision a classroom full of adults all of different ages, backgrounds, abilities, and educational levels.

It should be added that individualization of the instructional program can be, in some situations and for some purposes, viewed as undesirable. If the instructional program includes "communication skills," such as speaking, writing, and listening, as well as reading, some of these skills are more effectively taught in group situations than in individual learning programs. One of the real weaknesses in the performance of many undereducated adults is their inability to effectively express their thoughts orally in a group situation and/or in written form. This, then, should be part of the adult's instructional program, but it cannot easily be individualized. Sometimes it is more efficient to teach a group of people something they all need to know as a group rather than teaching them the same thing individually.

For the purpose of getting the adult started, for providing for immediate feedback and immediate success in learning, for helping the adult overcome his fears and anxieties about starting school again, individualization of instruction is beneficial. The advent of programmed instructional materials for adults (Hendershot, 1967) in basic skills as well as in most vocational and technical fields has enhanced the feasibility

of this option tremendously. A major advancement in administrative organization and philosophy in ABE which is closely related to the advent of appropriate programmed instructional materials is the establishment of the Learning Center Approach in ABE (Mocker and Sherk, 1970). This approach has many features which fit the life style, psychology, and educational needs of the undereducated adult. As a mechanism for the delivery of curriculum, it should be seriously considered by curriculum planners in ABE programs.

Another approach used for the individualization of instruction in ABE is the computer-assisted instructional approach. Until recently CAI was considered by most curriculum developers as in the experimental stages. However, most CAI programs are in their third generation, and the computers which deliver the material are in their fourth generation. These can no longer be categorized as experimental phenomena. The third generation programs in basic skills are extremely sophisticated and effective compared with their first generation ancestors. Similarly, the fourth generation computers deliver more program capacity faster at about one-half the original cost of the first generation computers. The latest CAI studies indicate that achievement of students using CAI compared to classroom programs is just as high or higher, CAI produces faster learning, and is cheaper than the traditional classroom approach. The cost of instruction is now estimated by some companies to be about $48 per student per course per year. The computer works day and night, never becomes impatient or sarcastic with the student, never forgets where he is in learning his program no matter how many times he is absent, nor what he has missed (CAI provides a complete response record on every student) and has never yet gone on strike for more pay. The ABE curriculum developer should not close his eyes to the possibility of providing CAI service to the undereducated adults in his program. The computer, like the ubiquitous phone booth, is already a fact of all our lives. Its potential has rarely been considered by educators and curriculum developers as a tool for delivering new educational services on a mass basis economically.

Another strategy for individualizing instruction, less costly, has been tried. The use of paraprofessionals and volunteers in tutoring roles has been widely publicized in the popular press. The tutor is able to meet the undereducated adult individually for the purpose of assisting him in the acquisition of the basic skills. Few studies have appeared which yield information on the effectiveness of this approach in ABE. Reports vary widely on its efficacy. Until more definite information is available on the training and preparation of tutors, the manner in which they can be employed to best advantage, and data gathered on the effect on the adult student of this type of interaction, care should be exercised by the curriculum developer in ABE in employing this strategy in delivering ABE curriculum to the undereducated adult.

III. Who Should Present Curriculum and Instruction to Undereducated Adults?

Reference to the employment of paraprofessional personnel and volunteers for the purpose of individualizing the ABE instructional program opens up the topic of <u>who</u> should do the teaching of the curriculum in ABE. It is well known that two teachers teaching the same subject from the same book to students with essentially similar characteristics produce differential levels of achievement in those classes and in individuals within those classes. In this sense, curriculum cannot be separated from people; curriculum <u>is</u> people. "<u>Who</u> teaches the ABE curriculum?" is very much related to the question of "What content should be taught?" Whoever teaches, teaches himself as well as the subject or the curriculum.

Most of the teachers teaching ABE classes have been recruited from the ranks of those employed as teachers in the public schools. This is consistent with the

curriculum adapted from the public school model now used in ABE. The licensing and preparation of teachers is under state control, and the teachers teaching in ABE classes are, therefore, credentialed professionals.

However, in practice there are problems with this arrangement. Among the most obvious is the problem of commitment to teaching the undereducated adult. For most teachers in ABE classes today, the ABE class is an extension or "second effort" job. His main occupation is teaching public school students, and his second occupation (usually for extra pay) is teaching adults. Related to this "second effort" problem is fatigue. After teaching 6-8 hours per day in regular public school, it cannot be denied that even the best qualified instructor approaches his "second job" of teaching with a diminished level of energy and probably a somewhat less rigorous preparation for the lesson.

Another problem with utilizing the public school teachers in ABE is that very often, although the teacher has credentials for teaching, he is not trained to teach basic skills such as reading and math. Those teachers in the public schools who are trained to teach basic skills are not trained to teach adults. One thing adults will not tolerate is to be treated as if they were children. An elementary school teacher, even with the best intentions toward helping the adult student, frequently insults him by giving him lessons and curriculum materials designed for children. The lack of attention until recently which was given to in-service education for ABE teachers has retarded progress in correcting this situation.

More subtle problems affect the ABE classroom situation when the public school teacher is in charge. In the frame of reference of most public school teachers, one learns something in the current instance so he can learn something more complex later. For example, one teaches addition in public school to the pupils so that they will be prepared for the operations required later in learning to multiply. Arithmetic is not taught for its immediate utility per se, but as a prerequisite for later learning. This is entirely logical in the public school teacher's experience, because the teacher has been through the system all the way to the top--college. In his experience, learning is always preparation; it is never-ending. But in working with an undereducated adult, frequently one finds the adult desiring to learn enough arithmetic to be able to, for example, become a carpenter. The problem here is that the ABE teacher probably does not know how much or what type of math a carpenter uses in his daily work. The only recourse the teacher has is to teach the math in the usual way and hope the adult student can transfer his math education and selectively apply these math skills in his trade as they are appropriate in a specific situation. Studies on transfer of training are among the most discouraging in all of educational research.

A partial answer to the question "Who should teach in the ABE classroom?" is a much wider segment of the population than is now being employed. Public school teachers do not know what undereducated adults need to learn in order to attain that to which they aspire. We need to include adults from outside the teaching profession as well as those from within the profession in order to fill this gap. Furthermore, Adult Basic Education teaching should be developed as a career orientation. In this regard, it is possible to entertain the idea that one could recruit teachers for ABE from any occupational group. It would be possible to train these recruits through in-service education to teach the basic skills to undereducated adults in their classes, even though these "outsiders" had never taught a day in public school in their lives; and even though the recruits may not have a college degree. They would have to have one thing, however: a sincere commitment to the teaching of <u>adults.</u> The point here is that the teaching of undereducated adults probably can be done as well or better by persons who live the kind of lives that these undereducated adults aspire to live than can be done by public school teachers who do

not live in the same world of experience as their students. It is certain that the curriculum generated by these "new" teachers in ABE would be different. Hopefully, it would be more meaningful to the ABE student and more relevant according to his way of thinking.

IV. What Should Represent Success in ABE Programs?

Much of the "good" that happens to people as a result of ABE today never shows on the books because we don't measure it. We are again confronted with the fact that the model for evaluation of what is accomplished in ABE programs has been adapted from the public school model. The standard of "literacy" in our society is based on a grade-level concept, the ability to demonstrate fifth grade competency in reading and writing on a test, and grade level itself is borrowed from the public school model of age-grading children for education. High school equivalency is measured on an achievement-type test which is purported to be related to the test performance of individuals who have been through twelve years of education.

ABE success parameters should reflect the parameters of success in the world the adult lives in; the world of work, the material and spiritual quality of life, citizenship, mental health and happiness. In order to make progress in judging success in ABE, the goals and objectives in ABE must be brought into line with the lives of the people for whom the programs are designed. The recognized sub groups of adults who comprise the target populations must be defined and described; explicit inclusion-exclusion criteria and identifying parameters must be developed which differentiate these sub groups; then adult criterion education tasks, which adequately sample the tasks with highly favorable returns to the individual and to society, should be developed. Based on these criterion tasks, educational programming would be created. Hopefully, "success" in ABE would then be less subject to challenge from all quarters.

Conclusion

Two questions should be confronted by ABE curriculum developers: (1) What is "basic" in the education of the millions of persons in our country who are socially and educationally lacking, politically under-represented, and racially and culturally in the minority? (2) What are these persons to be educated for?

The position has been taken by the establishment in education in the past that the "basics" were those to be found in the public school curriculum model--reading, writing, arithmetic and a high school diploma. Likewise, the establishment decided that the "what for?" of educating the adult was preparation for emergence into the next higher social class.

These traditional positions need to be seriously re-examined now. The system is not working as it formerly did for the undereducated adult in this society.

The development of new curriculum and styles of delivering the curriculum lie at the heart of the solution to this problem. We had better be about our work.

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SOME SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR ADULT BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAM

*B. Krishna Singh**

INTRODUCTION

The major objective of this paper is to examine the nature of interrelatedness of curriculum development for adult basic education and some socio-cultural factors in the Appalachian region. It is also proposed to examine the characteristics of the Appalachian people, the needs which can be met through the adult basic education programs, and factors which should be considered in developing curriculum for such programs.

Broadly defined, the aim of any educational endeavor is to create changes among its clients-- through educational means--in their attitude, skills, and knowledge. The aim of adult basic education, then, is to change the underprivileged and undereducated adults, and these changes have to be effected in such a direction that the ensuing productivity of the adult is increased (Bennis, 1962: 154-156). A conceptual model which is germane to this paper implies that the process of adult education can be viewed as a process of planned change, which is educational in nature, mutual goal setting (between the change agency and the clients who are adults), and includes the changes which are prompting changes in knowledge, skills, and attitudes through educational means.

The process of adult basic education, when viewed from a planned change perspective, involves a change agent (ABE instructor), clients (in this case Appalachian Adults), and a program of change (a specific curriculum of instruction). Boone and Quinn (1967) mention three dimensions of adult basic education, which are (1) Learner, (2) Behavior Change, and (3) Content Area. However, in this paper, the approach will be to include the total process of adult basic education. An ABE instructor serves as a change agent who has roles of analyst, advisor, advocator, and innovator (Callaher and Santopolo, 1967). It may be assumed that an ABE instructor plays purposive roles designed to influence the process of change in an anticipated direction. His role has to be consistent with the instructional objectives which may include (1) intended outcome, (2) behavior changes in the learner, (3) the nature of specificity, and (4) communicability (Mager, 1962).

In the second section, we shall attempt to examine what Appalachian people are like, what they are typical of, and their psycho-social orientations. The third section will describe the nature of relationship between the sociocultural variables and how they might affect the curriculum development.

THE APPALACHIAN REGION

The Appalachian region spans over thirteen states and can be divided into Highlands, Northern, Central, and Southern subregions. The geo-cultural unity for the region is provided in the sense that people who live along the Appalachian mountain range share a common geographical region and there are many parts of this region which share the isolatedness. Social scientists characterize the region by low education, low income, and, in general, a poverty region. Fictions characterize the region with natural beauty and social hell. Newspaper

*Dr. Singh is Assistant Professor of Rural Sociology in the Department of Anthropology, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia.

reporters when looking for "poverty stuff" in rural areas invariably comb the Appalachian neighborhoods. It must be, however, noted that not all the people in the Appalachian region are poor. It does have its pockets of affluence. But the most affluent and abundant attribute of this region is its poverty.

It may seem to be begging the question that a generalization about the entire Appalachian region is fraught with the difficulty of overgeneralizations. There is no typical Appalachian adult.

Preliminary demographic figures would support the notion that the population of the Appalachian region is older and has a higher proportion of females. The size of family is larger than the average American family. The proportions of black and foreign-born population are very low. Thus, the Appalachian population is mostly white. Although some of the areas of the Appalachian region have shown population decline over two intercensal periods, it may be postulated that eventually the population will stabilize. In recent years, the younger people have been migrating to urban centers of the nation in search of jobs. That will explain in part the reason for the declining population of the Appalachian region (Ford, 1962a). [1]

Economic factors to be considered are per capita income, source of income, level of employment, and educational level. Although no current statistical summary is available about the entire region, it appears that per capita income is low. Source of income is more from welfare and government transfer payments than from self-earned sources. To quote Fetterman "Welfare is the biggest business" (Fetterman, 1969). The level of employment is very low. Figures which are available would support the notion that the Appalachian region is an economically deprived area. (Ford, 1962), Eg. there is a county in rural Kentucky, the population of which has been declining for many years because of out-migration. Latest available estimates show the per capita income of Knox County as $612 and the median family income about $1,700. One-third of the families in the county have incomes of less than $1,000 a year, while about 57 percent have less than $2,000, and slightly over 70 percent have under $3,000. In standard of living, Knox County is ranked 117th among 120 counties in Kentucky. The median educational level is 8 years of formal schooling. Persons 25 years of age or older who have completed fewer than five grades comprise about 27 percent of the population. There are about 2000 active cases of welfare, including 889 persons receiving Old Age Assistance. About 44 percent of the population receives some kind of aid. The number of unemployed per 100 insured workers is 259.3. Of the employed, 45.4 percent are classified as unskilled (KCEOC, 1965).

The major channels of communication and participation are person oriented rather than mass media oriented. It should be noted that most studies about the mass media availability indicate that there are enough radio and TV sets to term it a "saturated area" (Donohew and Thorp, 1966). However, there does seem to be an apparent lack of printed media (newspapers and magazines). This lack of printed media would seem consistent if we keep in mind the lack of education and undereducation. It would also provide the basis for designing an effective program for adult basic education. It would also be well worth keeping in mind that total exposure to media is more important than the content in describing the Appalachian population. Most people of older generation, in one of the studies, did not seem to watch the news oriented programs (Donohew, 1968). It may be postulated that media is not as effective a modernizing force as would have been expected. Partly it can be attributed to the nature of programs which are available in these areas. However, no attempt should be

[1]For the Southern Appalachian Region, Ford (1962) is the best source available.

made to deny the fact that radio and TV do seem to bring "outside world" into the "living rooms" of the Appalachian people. The importance of mass media as a modernizing force has been reported in many studies across the world.[2] When an advanced communication network is already available in the Appalachian region, it can be effectively utilized in terms of providing the necessary impetus for modernization.

The most effective means of communication, in terms of source credibility factor, seem to be interpersonal interaction networks. Thus, while media may be considered important for making people cognitively aware of information about some object, interpersonal interaction network serves as the vehicle to carry out further information processing and evaluation of the information. Organizational participation is low, which can be explained with the fact that there are not many organizations where rural Appalachian people can participate.[3] There are hollows and coves in the Appalachian region which are inaccessible during winter months. Thus, physical isolation is another factor which needs to be considered in designing any curriculum for the Appalachian region.

The role of communication network has been very important in most emerging nations. Lerner (1958) points out "The modernization process begins with new public communication--the diffusion of new ideas and new information which stimulate people to want to behave in new ways." In order for any communication network to be effective, education is an important factor. Wherever the needed educational base is not available, as is the case in the Appalachian region, new bases have to be provided by the adult basic education program.

Attitudinal dimensions of Appalachian people are rather hard to describe. According to Weller (1965), Appalachian people are not likely to join groups. Acceptance of status quo is generally viewed as a matter of life. There are very few broadening experiences available to Appalachian people. Now, there are parents who are interested in the educational advancement of their children. Vocational aspirations are increasing and some people are moving away to seek white collar jobs (Ford, 1962). Modernizing forces are operating effectively in some areas whereas they may not be very effective in other areas. Media participation, which has been considered a lubricant for modernization in many emerging areas of the world, is showing some impact. In recent years, the Appalachian man has become a more active citizen, partly because of the development of wider communication network and partly because some people who have moved to urban areas to share the affluence of the nation tend to come back with stories of affluence.

Moreover, in past years, many governmental programs have attempted to alter the life styles of Appalachian people. Some of them have made some changes, while others have failed. A major problem with most of these programs has been their short span of operation. To have any visible effects, such programs did have at least some impact in terms of giving broader experiences to the Appalachian people.

Due to an increased and active participation by the citizenry of Appalachia, there seem to be traces of modern value orientations. These values show more prominently in the empathetic abilities of the Appalachian people. They are becoming more aware of problems which are beyond their immediate reference and are thus breaking out of isolation barriers which may have been present previously (Donohew and Singh, 1969; Singh, 1970a). However, those seeking to bring about changes in the Appalachian people should be cautiously aware that there are difficulties in changing values. In addition, there seems to be some resistance on the part of elite who are faced with the situation of status withdrawal.[4]

[2]See Rogers (1969) for cross-national comparisons.

[3]According to Weller (1965), Appalachian people are not likely to join groups.

[4]It is the same conceptualization as that of Hagen (1962).

There seem to be some changes in the political structure in some rural areas of the Appalachian region. Many sections of Appalachia, five years ago, were given a new format of political structure with the passage of Economic Opportunity Act in 1964. Although "maximum feasible misunderstandings" did prevail in some areas, other parts showed an increased participation in local political matters. Political factors and leadership structure do tend to follow along kinship and clique lines for local scene. A common impression that school superintendents in most of the rural Appalachian region are important political figures is substantiated in some studies (Sutton, 1968). The reason for this power is attributable to the employing power of the school superintendents. An effective program of adult basic education needs to consider this point if public school facilities are to be used any time. The cooperation of county school superintendents would also insure faster communication with the local population.

In general, Appalachian people are cognitively not well aware about the political matters which are beyond their immediate reference, but they are well aware about their local politics and people who control offices. In one study, it was found that although the Appalachian people seem to have knowledge about political matters (mostly local politics), they felt they could not exercise their political power. An explanation which would seem logical at this point is that such a condition of powerlessness can be attributed to their general attitudinal dimensions of fatalism and lack of contact with the outside world. However, an additional finding in the same study indicated that this efficacy in political matters varied from community to community. The more accessible a community, the more efficacious political behavior was observed (Donohew and Singh, 1969; Singh 1970a).

One may want to argue that Appalachian population would resist change. For example, Weller (1965) states that "it is a pathological society in that it does not deal adequately with the problem of life. It is not a problem-solving society--in fact, it is a problem-creating society." Somewhat earlier, Weller (1965) also mentions the mountaineer as an obstacle to change as well as his reference group structure. However, there are at least three studies about Appalachian people which give contrary evidence (Donohew and Singh, 1968; Plunkett, 1966; Singh, 1970a). One may consider "the sprawling growth of the region's metropolitan areas and the abandoned cabins up narrow hollow roads provide evidence of major population shifts" (Ford, 1962b:9).

A general proposition which can be forwarded is that those people who accept new ideas and practices are accepting them because these new ideas are of more highly valued social goals. More specifically, the ideational acceptance of new ideas was found to be greater among people who had less social life amenities. To restate, the greater the perceived need for changes in the life styles, the greater will be the acceptance of new ways and means.

An additional point which should be considered here specifically from the adult basic education curriculum development perspective is the want:get ratio. It can be assumed that if an effective curriculum of instruction can be developed, it is bound to create greater needs among the Appalachian people. Due to cumulative impact of several programs of developmental change and entrance of Appalachia in the U.S. mass society (although not quite yet in the mainstream), changes are taking place in the social-psychological realms of these people. These changes in aspirations, of which adult basic education eventually becomes a part, need to be supplemented in some form by the opportunities for achievements. According to Lerner, satisfaction--achievement/aspiration implies that an individual's level of satisfaction is, at any given point, a ratio between what he wants and what he gets (Lerner, 1963).

It raises the issue of what can be provided by a program such as adult basic education which aims at improving the life

styles of Appalachian people. Should the program assume the responsibility of providing the necessary employment and vocational rehabilitation as may be needed with the increasing skills and employability of the Appalachian people? This writer is not in a position to make any judgments but feels that it would be almost necessary to provide vocational counseling and possibly maintain a list of possible employers. Perhaps a coordinated effort can be made to attract industry and business in the area. But the aim of adult basic education and its instructional objectives should be more as a resocializing process for the Appalachian adults rather than concentrating efforts on providing jobs.

Nervousness of man when confronted with the forces of change is not new, and this will also be the case for the Appalachian adults. There is definite need for resocializing these people who are either uneducated or undereducated. One of the prime concerns of such a magnitude should be to change the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of these people. Here lies a challenge for the adult basic education program and it has to deal with the same kind of nervousness which is being experienced by most of the people around the world.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION: SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In recent years, social scientists have concerned themselves with the process of modernization. This concern with a kind of value-directed change is not out of curiosity but out of a hope for a better future for mankind. It is a genuine concern about people who are within a "poverty syndrome," and such changes are taking place in many areas, such as emerging nations and impoverished areas of the affluent nations.

In order to instill these changes, many nations have used the education approach, and foremost in the process of planned change has been the concept of adult basic education. More specifically, in illiterate and undereducated areas, the program of adult basic education seems to have emerged as a major vehicle of planned change. From the foregoing description of the Appalachian region, one can easily infer the need for change. The role of adult basic education in such an area would be to intensify the socio-cultural changes with anticipated direction which can alter the life styles of people in this region.

The generalized model of the adult basic education in this paper is based on certain assumptions which are stated below:

1. Adult basic education (subsequently curriculum development) process operates in a societal context. The existence of a social system, wherever such a process might operate, can be defined in terms of structural elements and functional processes of that system.

2. The effectiveness of a curriculum can be measured in terms of changes produced in the structural elements and functional processes of a system. A system as defined here can be either an intra-individual system or a social system.

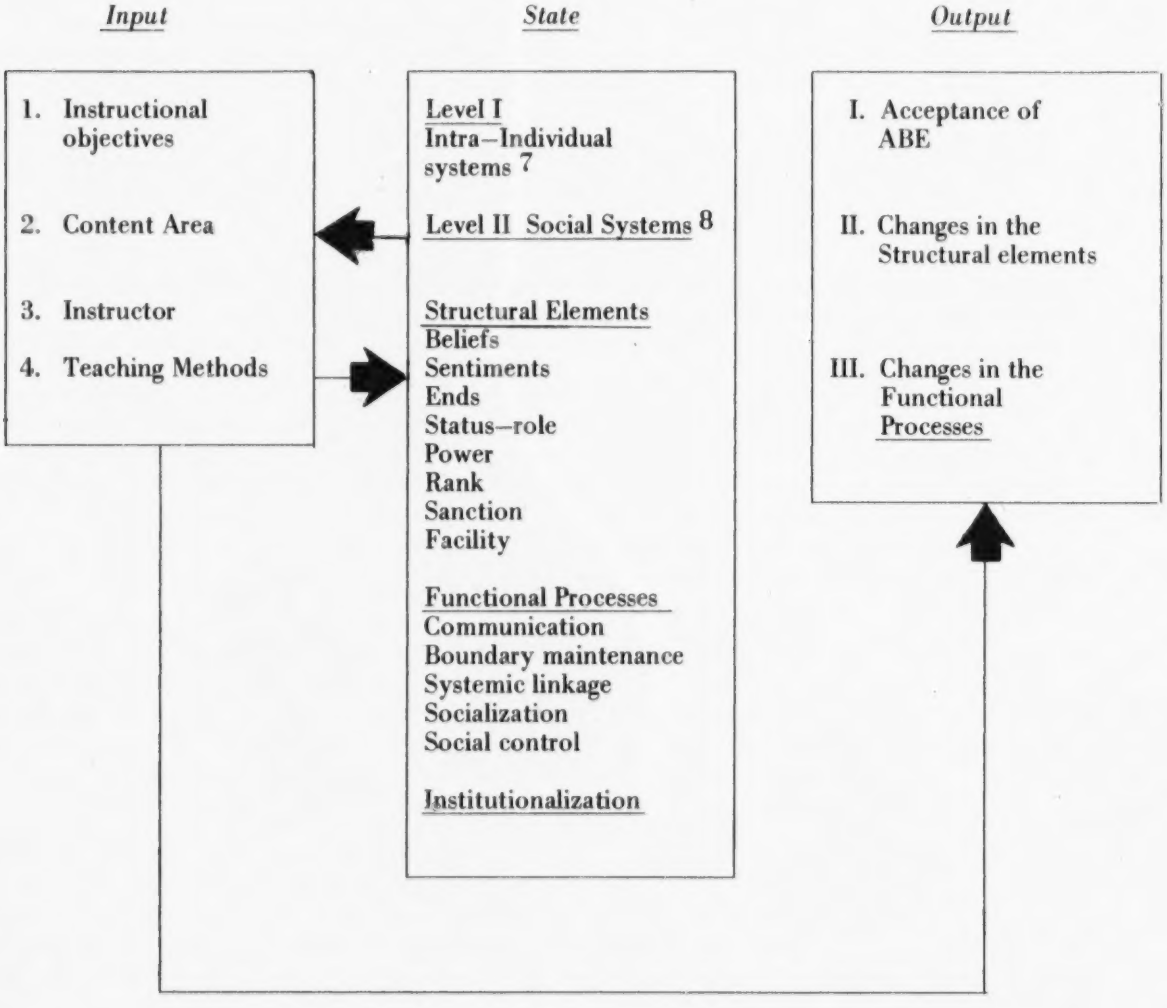
3. The input of an adult basic education curriculum in a system is something which is needed and is considered desirable both by the agency and the clients.

The basic objective of this model is to provide a conceptual linkage between the curriculum, systematic context and changes which may occur if the curriculum can achieve its anticipated output. Such a model will also be to provide the implications of sociological factors in curriculum development. A schematic diagram of the model is presented in Figure I.

Figure I shows that there are three matrices of information available relating curriculum, learners' socio-cultural context,

FIGURE I

A GENERAL SYSTEMS MODEL FOR THE ADULT BASIC EDUCATION PROCESS [6]



[6] Adapted from Singh (1970b).

[7] The primary unit of analysis in this model is the individual. When studying intra-individual systems, the concern is to determine the norms of variables used in constructing the individual interactive behavior systems (Lerner, 1963: 327-60).

[8] Loomis (1960: 1-47).

and the possible outputs. It should be mentioned at this point that the output matrix may include anticipated as well as actual results if time is included as a real parameter.

The state of a system is defined in terms of systemic elements and functional processes as shown in Figure I (Loomis, 1960; 1-47; Parson, 1951:19, Parsons, et.al. 1951: 168). This gives us a list of variables which give us information about the learner. Specifically, in Appalachia, we find the structural elements and functional processes described in the earlier section.[5] For example, we find that since the Appalachian population is somewhat undereducated or uneducated, one of the major institutional objectives should be to provide the basic literacy training. It also helps us to define what the content area will be. The functional process, including communication, will help us provide the nature of teaching methods which can be used and what type of instructors that will be required.

The input vector, which is the curriculum development vector, can be defined as the information input of instructional objectives, content areas, instructor's attributes and methods which can be effectively applied. Studies dealing with other undereducated and uneducated adults indicate that lower teacher/student ratio is most effective in teaching adults. Another instructional objective should be to identify the needs of Appalachian adults. In general, it may be suggested that the content areas should be basic education, vocational education, health education, homemaker education, and consumer education.

The output vector can be defined in terms of acceptance or rejection of each specific curriculum of adult basic education and, if accepted, what are the anticipated and observed changes. It may be emphasized that with the changes in the output vector, the input vector needs to be redefined over a period of time. For example, if an Appalachian adult receives the literacy training as well as the vocational training, his needs are likely to change. In order to meet the changing needs, structural elements and functional processes of the systems, the instructional objectives, content areas, instructors and teaching methods have to be changed. It is being implied here that as the state of intra-individual and social systems change, the curriculum development will follow along the same line.

Each curriculum as a unit is part of the total process of adult basic education, which when viewed from the diffusion of information perspective, can be conceptualized as shown in Figure 2. It will appear from Figure 2 that from a psycho-social point of view, a stimulus (curriculum) produces awareness of ABE program in an adult. In order for an adult to be pursuaded about an ABE program, the factors to be considered are the client's (Appalachian adult's) needs, the socio-cultural context, and other psycho-social attributes of the clients. As soon as an Appalachian adult becomes aware of a specific curriculum of instruction offered by the ABE program and decides to enroll, the basic problem on the part of the programming agency would be the retention of the adults in the agency's program.

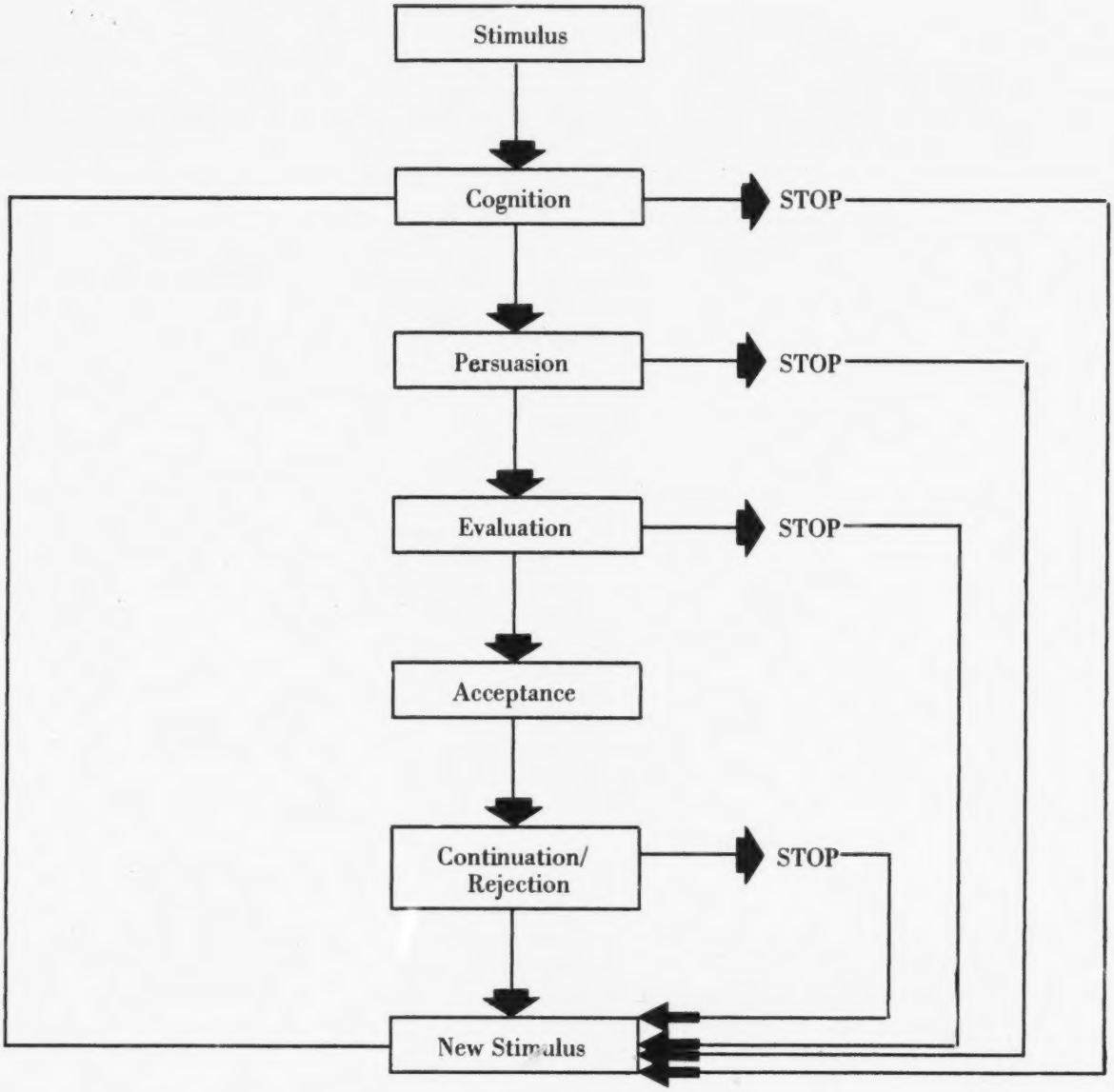
The retention of any adult in an adult basic education program will be dependent upon how well he can rationalize the decisions to stay in a specific curriculum of ABE. It is not, however, that the Appalachian adult is incapable of making non-rational (traditional, affectual, and sacred) decisions (Loomis and Beegle, 1960). In fact, the description of the Appalachian people suggests that the latter will be a more frequent case than the former one. However, in order for an adult to continue in an ABE program, he has to rationalize at various points. In the development of a curriculum, it should be kept in mind that there have to be back-up systems (sometimes almost redundant systems) to retain an adult in the program.

[5]Parsons (1951) maintains that we should differentiate between total social systems and partial social systems. The decision to call a geographical unit a social system depends on the presence of all or most of the systemic elements and processes.

FIGURE 2

SEQUENTIAL ACCEPTANCE OF AN ABE CURRICULUM

BY THE LEARNER [9]



[9] Adapted from Rogers (1962).

The content area will also play an important role in the development of a curriculum for the Appalachian adults. The content areas which are currently needed have to be emphasized more in terms of the utility, visibility, complexity, and compatibility (Rogers, 1962); e.g., it would be more difficult to convince an Appalachian adult to join the citizenship education program than to get him to join the basic literacy program. The utility of a curriculum can be explained in terms of how useful it might be to the adults it serves. For example, perhaps vocational training programs in the Appalachian region have more immediate utility (provided they can be employed somewhere) than, say, consumer education. This is not to say, of course, that consumer education as an ABE program will have no utility. What is being suggested here is that in order to develop a set of curricula, the priorities of the needs and interest have to be predetermined and arranged accordingly.

A note about the communication channels should be added at this point. The relevance of a communication network for an effective curriculum need not be reemphasized at this point. It is suggested that there should be a built-in mechanism in the curriculum about how the Appalachian adults should be approached and once they are in the program of certain instructional curriculum, how they can be retained. The use of mass media to make people aware of certain programs will be very effective. However, television lessons may have little impact on the Appalachian people. The reason for such an inference is the credibility placed upon the television as the source of information so far. In the Appalachian mind, the television is not yet considered a credible enough source. Perhaps in the later stages television can be more effectively used than in the initial stages.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

One of the major considerations in developing any curriculum is to keep it consistent with the needs of the client it serves. In the Appalachian region, which is an economically depressed area, the innate and physiological needs have to be met first. Once these needs are met, the Appalachian population is more likely to strive to become oriented toward the major societal goals. It is not being suggested here that these people will accept all the middle class American values. The case would be probably far from it. But they will develop a new value system of their own.

Another crucial point is that the process of curriculum development and, consequently, the process of adult education must be cogent with the structural attributes and the processual articulation of the Appalachian people. Up to this point the discussion has pointed out that developing a curriculum for adult basic education can be viewed as a process of planned change. There is some scientific knowledge available about the attributes of the Appalachian people, about curriculum development, and about the process of learning and teaching. The effort required at this point is not to blend these different disciplines together to arrive at generalized models of curriculum which can be adapted to specific local situations.

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A TENTATIVE EDUCATIONAL PLAN FOR UNDEREDUCATED ADULTS IN THE APPALACHIAN REGION

*Elliot Lethbridge**

The goal of any educational plan for undereducated adults is to create optimum conditions under which substantial numbers of the target population will become fully involved in an educational enterprise. This enterprise must be in every sense an experience from which adults can derive substantial measures of return for their input of time and trust. The design of an educational experience in the Appalachian region must contain an absolute minimum of three strategically designed components.

The first essential component of the Appalachian adult educational experience is the firming-up on the part of the administration of the project of a viable philosophy answering the questions (1) "What are we trying to accomplish?" and (2) "What are we asking and requesting society and its agents to support wholeheartedly?" This philosophy should not address itself to questions of what will it cost, nor will most state ABE plans permit this procedure. It must, rather, determine if the task can be done. If it can, any means at the command of the project team must be utilized to effectuate the intent of the philosophy.

The second essential component of the Appalachian educational experience is a focus upon the adult illiterate target population. The following "Profile of an Illiterate Adult" suggests the possible progress that an undereducated adult may make toward his goals and some desirable outcomes of his educational program.

The third essential component the administration of the program must consider is design of the strategy of outreach. This strategy must take into account all of the communication difficulties of initiating and reenforcing the initial dialogue with selected members of the target population. This strategy assumes the total involvement of all individuals, agencies, and power figures who currently have some kind and quality of dialogue with this population.

Let us start with the premise that there is a mandate inherent in the delivery of adult education to create a series of environments which will enable undereducated adults to move from where they are to where they will ultimately want to go. One presumes that probably many of them do not know where they want to go or even if they want to go, at the outset. A series of environments must be designed to induce members of the target population to take a tentative, hesitant, and cautious first step by getting involved with this program. The program must be staffed with members who fully understand and appreciate the tension, anxiety, distress, and mixed loyalties with which the target population is inescapably beset with the decision to initiate a response to an outreach or recruiting overture. An overriding precept must be that the initiation of the dialogue must be and stay on the terms of the target population adult.

It may be of value to examine an analysis of the inputs of a successful adult basic education (ABE) program in a setting very different from most of Appalachia. Illiterate adults seem to become involved in educational programs in a variety of identifiable ways.[1] Statements of 1,001 students were recorded describing how they were referred to a White Plains, New York,

*Mr. Lethbridge is Director of White Plains Adult Education Center, White Plains, New York.

[1]Elliot Lethbridge, An Analysis of Student Enrollment in Adult Basic Education Program.

A PROFILE OF AN ILLITERATE ADULT

HAS A DEVASTATED CONCEPT OF HIS WORTH AS AN INDIVIDUAL

Is last to be hired

Is a target for automation

Is first to be fired

If employed, is forced to work several jobs to survive

Has few purposeful uses of leisure time

Can't share in great productivity of our nation

If employed, is a hazard to self and others

Is the major component in the cycle of poverty

Has limited credit

Is an inefficient consumer

Is a target for the "hard sell" of inappropriate goods and services

Has economic limitations which restrict much of his social life

Is likely to be or become a welfare recipient

Leads a survival-base life

Is a minimal parent

Is unaware of the changing world around him

Is grossly uninformed

Can't serve in Armed Forces

Tends to perpetuate illiteracy in offspring

Can't comprehend the school structure as a help to himself or his children

Can't qualify as a voter

Places minimal premium on educational pursuits

Has limited stimulation toward cultural enrichment

Is seldom sophisticated in interpersonal relationships

Has potential for anger and resentment

Is easily discriminated against

Is unable to seek recourse to obtain his basic rights

Is fearful of new experiences

Has not effective way of modifying his own destiny

Is non-involved in the community

Is unfulfilled as an individual

Is not inclined to utilize the agencies provided by society to serve him

Has difficulty complying with s o c i e ty's regulations

A PROFILE OF AN ILLITERATE ADULT--STAGE II

DURING THE TRANSITION OF INSTRUCTION

HAS TRANSLATED HIS VAGUE YEARNINGS FOR A "BETTER LIFE" INTO ACTION BY TAKING THE VITAL FIRST STEP

Looks at himself and his limitations

Arrives at a judgment that he is not satisfied with what and where he is

Sees the relationship of his illiteracy to his unsatisfactory existence

Having carefully tested the attitudes of his immediate cycle of contacts which may include family, friends, employer, co-workers and neighbors, realizes that they would support and encourage his going to school

Makes cautious, general inquiry about school for adults

Makes the decision to take the first step to visit an adult school

Musters his inner strength to overcome his fear of embarrassment and guilt and actually visits an adult school

Meets the guidance counselor and makes known his decision to renew his education

Discovers that there actually is an organized educational program specifically designed for adults who do not read well

For the first time admits to a stranger he reads less effectively than he wants to

Is allowed opportunity to participate during his first session and thus feels accepted and less of an intruder

Is given books and writing materials which are especially selected for him

Finds that the counselor understands and accepts readily the fact that he hasn't had much schooling

Realizes that the counselor encourages him to establish his educational plan

Feels accepted as an individual of worth by the way he is treated by the school staff

Has his intention to better himself reinforced during his discussion with the counselor

Participates in a simple screening test and realizes that they will get him started

Is reassured as he discusses how he will match his available time to the class schedule

Is introduced to his teacher who is genuinely glad to meet him

Feels his anxiety disappear as he sees his class consists of adults

Establishes a sense of kinship with other members of minority groups within the class

Is impressed, even in the first class session, that this is an organized active group of adults working together

Quickly determines that his classmates are reading at about the same level as he does

Rather easily becomes involved in an active, planned educational program

A PROFILE OF AN ILLITERATE ADULT--STAGE III

INVOLVED IN A MEANINGFUL INSTRUCTIONAL EXPERIENCE

EXPERIENCES AN EMERGING SENSE OF SELF-WORTH AS HE ACQUIRES SKILLS AND DEMONSTRATES TO HIMSELF AND HIS PEERS THAT HE IS QUITE CAPABLE OF GROWTH AND ACHIEVEMENT

Readily adjusts to the routine of concentrated effort required

Builds a physical tolerance for the visual and verbal demands of classroom participation

Is forced to reorganize his life style to permit time for school attendance

Demonstrates a high commitment to better himself in terms of adjustments of his pattern of living

Pays the price required in terms of travel

Displays a tenacity in returning to class when personal problems force interrruption in attendance

Is versatile in managing solutions to demands of travel, baby-sitting and finances

Is often willing to sacrifice some earning power to attend school

Reacts enthusiastically to the success he experiences and the gains in basic skills he achieves

Is stimulated by the experience of reentering the world of the student

Acquires a momentum in his daily product and learning effort

Demonstrates a sophistication in his communication with peers and teachers

Demonstrates a genuine gratitude for the opportunity he is having to help himself

Is impatient with what he perceives as relatively slow progress in learning to read

Requires of his teachers well-organized and purposeful learning experiences

Discovers the satisfaction of learning

As success is increased, increases motivation at an accelerating rate

Regularly demands feedback of the rate and quality of his progress

Acquires a high degree of tolerance to relatively long periods of concentrated effort

Acquires a variety of basic skills and presses to utilize them

Accepts guidance in solving personal problems

Utilizes his new-found confidence to negotiate for assistance with staff of public and private agencies

Contributes his personal experience in class discussions

Is beginning to be informed about the world around him

Reaches out to others and builds high quality relationships with students and teachers

Experiences a shifting upward of the initial goals which he had set for himself

HAS A NEWLY ACQUIRED CONCEPT OF HIMSELF AS AN ABLE INDIVIDUAL WHO MOVES TO DETERMINE HIS OWN DESTINY

Is a more valuable employee

Can be considered for more responsible positions within his job setting

Can adjust to the changing demands of the job through training

Is eligible for and interested in vocational training to increase wages

Based on his successful educational experience, is anxious to get more education

Utilizes leisure time in reading

Can read about opportunities available to him

If employed, can now read the directions, signs, and regulations

Realizes the value of education for his children and places a real premium on their school adjustment and achievement

Can apply for credit from legitimate lending institutions

Has learned to apply his reading and computational skills to the art of consumer purchasing

Can read the various published regulations of society and is delighted to be able to fill out reports and forms

If a welfare recipient, may be able to become independent by benefiting from vocational training

Can commend a higher rate of pay as a result of a more salable vocational skill

Can budget income to manage expenditures more effectively

Having a new dignity and concept of self-worth, is able to lead his children to aspire

Is a better informed individual as a result of formal and informal reading

Is eligible to exercise voting franchise

Can get driver's license

Can serve in Armed Forces

May be secure enough based on his successful school experience to become involved in P.T.A. activities

Realizes the necessity of education for his children and is more inclined to discuss their progress with the school authorities

Is not as easily discriminated against because he is aware of his rights under the law

Has had successful and pleasant experiences in his school and thus is more ready to try new experiences

Is more confident of his own ability to seek society's help in the solution of his problems

Has the understanding of how to utilize public and private agencies to help him

Is a more fulfilled individual and has more time and inclination to guide his children

Is receptive to overtures from organized community groups to join and participate

program. (See Table I) The two major sources of referral agencies and word-of-mouth endorsement of the program is by enrolled students.

Although the White Plains data was gathered from a program serving a black, inner-city target population, it may be possible to assume that some human behaviors are similar. It may be said that any effort to make an outreach to the target population in Appalachia would require the recognition of the fact that many illiterates have great concerns about revealing their inadequacies to others. They are initially apprehensive and even distrustful about overtures made to them in this vein. This, an outreach strategy, would probably be viable if it contained in its design the assumption that although difficult at first, target population members can be induced to discuss the general benefit they could derive from allowing themselves to get involved with outsiders. A phrase from A Jesse Stuart Reader entitled, "Sounds on the Wind," may be indicative of the mountaineers' basic desire to do better.

"In the hills our life was often harsh and brutal. We were very poor and had to move from one rented farm to another to try to improve our lot."

The main point, in the developing of an outreach strategy, is that until some members of other target populations have been influenced by the program, the worth of getting involved will remain unadvertised. Therefore, the stress must be toward initiating a dialogue with selected members of the target population in order to build communication links. These links can be strengthened as target population adults determine for themselves that the staff of a program can be trusted. It is vital that the initial linkage be based on providing service to the target population member in terms of his own perception of what he needs.

As a program builds integrity in the minds of those who are involved in it, the linkage to the target population becomes less urgent. People will become involved in a program which has an image of integrity, delivery of product, and signals subtle manifestations of caring.

"Return"
(From: A Jesse Stuart Reader)

I shall be going soon where no one knows:
I shall go to my pine pole mountain shack
Before the autumn comes and summer goes,
Before the leaves fall--I must be going back.
I was not made to walk on streets of stone
And breathe into my lungs the City smoke; I must go to the highland world I own
Where I can breathe the air of pine and oak.
I shall go back to where the jar flies sing,
Back to brown hills that shoulder to the sky.
I want to see shikepokes on whirring wings;
I want to hear the bittern's lonely cry;
I want to hear the beetles sing at night;
I want to see the owl fly in the gray starlight.

As an adult educator, this poem has a clear message for me. An educational outreach program for adults who feel the love of the hills to this degree must start in these hills.

Within the outreach effort must be an acceptance of the fact that agencies designed to serve the target population will require a drastic shift in attitude. The target population members currently demonstrate that they know not and care not about the services from which society thinks they could benefit. The target population lives in a mountain culture which may be characterized by set views, insularity of behavior, patriarchy, illiteracy, isolation, dependence upon relief, unemployment or

TABLE I

Student enrollment in the Adult Basic Education Program
from January 1, 1966, through January 1, 1969,
gathered during initial interview

NO.	CATEGORY	1966	1967	1968
1	Referred by Day School Principals	3	5	7
2	Referred by Adult Education Counselor	11	3	1
3	Referred by M.D.T. Guidance	6	9	7
4	Referred by ABE Teacher	3	25	6
5	Came to Adult Education Center to take Literacy Test	1	0	0
6	Formal Recruiting	65	30	10
7	Reenrolled after Contact by Attendance Recruiter	17	23	84
8	Encouraged to enroll by students in the program	4	43	58
9	Encouraged to enroll by parent or family	2	16	16
10	Encouraged to enroll by a friend	4	22	39
11	Encouraged to enroll by employer	2	4	20
12	Encouraged to enroll by co-worker	-	1	2
13	Encouraged to enroll by ABE graduate	1	3	1
14	Came because of the reputation of this Adult Education Center	53	61	36
15	Read about ABE Program in newspaper	3	-	1
16	Read ABE poster	1	-	-
17	Heard about ABE Program on radio	1	-	3
18	Referred by County Division of Social Services	20	41	74
19	Referred by N.Y. Division of Employment	1	41	58
20	Referred by Neighborhood Youth Corps	-	18	5
21	Referred by Community Action Program	-	6	5
22	Referred by Church Day Care Center	1	2	1
23	Referred by Division of Vocational Rehabilitation	-	1	4
24	Referred by Family Service of Westchester	1	-	1
25	Referred by Urban League	1	-	-
26	Referred by White Plains Carver Center	1	-	-
27	Referred by A.R.C. - Sheltered Workshop	-	-	1
28	Referred by BOCES	-	-	1
29	Referred by Westchester Jewish Community Service	-	-	1
30	Referred by White Plains CAGE	-	-	1
31	Referred by Pastor of church	-	-	1
	GRAND TOTAL	202	354	445

TABLE I (Cont.)

	Observations	*1966*	*1967*	*1968*
A.	*Educational units provide steady referrals (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4)*	*23*	*42*	*21*
B.	*Formal recruiting decreased each year (No. 6) as recruiters focused on dropouts*	*65*	*30*	*10*
	re-enrollees increased (No. 7)	*17*	*23*	*84*
C.	*Encouraged to enroll by close daily contacts (Nos. 9, 10, 11, 12, 13)*	*9*	*46*	*79*
D.	*Enrolled due to Public Relations (Nos. 14, 15, 16, 17)*	*58*	*61*	*40*
E.	*Direct Agency Referral (Nos. 18 through 31)*	*25*	*109*	*153*

underemployment, and distrust of the outside. They are often suspicious of strangers and proud of their different speech and cultural value system.

Agencies need to address themselves and their staff efforts toward a commitment to initiate a dialogue with the target population. The bridge of communication must be very different from the traditional approach of "fill out the form," and then "stand in line." The target population can gradually be made aware that counseling, educational, welfare, medical, nutritional, sanitation, and other services are of value. Knowledge that these services are worthy of use must be transmitted to the target population through the staff of the educational outreach team. If agreement can be reached at the administrative level, services must be brought to the people, and then the staffs of the respective agencies can begin to implement the agreement.

The role of the various agencies which have adopted a philosophy of outreach would be the supplying service, information, and literature to the communicating members of the education outreach team. Table 2, an Outreach Flow Chart, proposes a scheme for outreach in Appalachian counties. Level I would acquaint the target population with the overall outreach effort.

At Level II, the paraprofessionals who man the jeeps could bring to the hills first-aid, surplus food, local transportation, and interest in local community activities.

At Level III, the semi-permanent facility would provide an educational counseling service which would reveal the kinds and scope of services available. More important, it would enable interested Target Population members with the direct opportunity to get their feet wet. The first cautious exploratory step in a basic education class, in a conference on use of surplus food, advice on prenatal concerns, or on job training at another location could all take place here.

At Level IV, the comprehensive youth adult community service center could in a real sense take major steps toward obtaining the recommendations set down by the Educational Advisory Committee of the Appalachian Regional Commission.[4]

1. Develop a good educational system which, when coupled with community interest, will provide an atmosphere conducive to the growth of diversified industry.

2. Offer the Appalachian youth the opportunity to receive quality education and thereby increase their lifetime earnings.

3. Create an informed and socially responsible electorate which will be able to recognize community needs and work through local and state governments to provide solutions.

4. Demonstrate the ability of the Appalachian people to utilize whatever capital and manpower become available.

The proposed Center at Level IV would represent to the target population an opportunity to partake of a recreational, informational, educational, vocational training, and job placement cafeteria. Each target population member would survey at his own pace the opportunities, activities, and service available to him on his own terms. Each target population member would develop his own "readiness" to partake of the preferred services.

The essential components of the Center would be a comprehensive Manpower Development Training Program which would provide job training and its related basic education. The specific training areas might include clerical, licensed practical nurse, auto body, auto mechanics, and food service which have proven highly successful in many areas of the nation. Innovative training areas,

[4]Appalachian Regional Commission, Interim Report of the Educational Advisory Committee, p. 4.

TABLE 2

OUTREACH FLOW CHART

TARGET POPULATION	*Adults and youth who are basically different in "life style"[2] than that which exists throughout the other geographical regions of the nation. Factors unique to this population have precluded any significant involvement on their part with the outside community.*
LEVEL I	*Carefully structured narrow-cast TV[3] designed to attract the target population as viewing audience. Content to be such as to appeal to the target population's taste in music and culture. Goal to pre-sell the educational outreach program.*
LEVEL II	*Radio equipped jeeps manned by paraprofessionals who would have an on-going goal: the initiation of initial dialogue with the target population in and near their homes. This would provide service and communication which would be on the need-terms of the target population.*
LEVEL III	*Semipermanent facility located within walking distance of clusters of the target population residences. Staffed with cross-trained staff who can provide a variety of services and information.*
LEVEL IV	*Comprehensive youth-adult community service center. Located where target population members can reach, using varied transportation means.*
LEVEL V	*Target population members utilize services and move from where they were to where they can now go.*

[2]L. Donahew and B. K. Singh, Communication and Life Styles in Appalachia, p. 203.

[3]Lamar Marchese, Adult Education - CATV Position Paper, p. 1.

such as heavy equipment operator, diesel mechanic, surveyor, and other skills likely to be in heavy demand in Appalachia during the period needed for the current construction of the large dams and roads, might prove feasible. Eventually, of course, these skills areas might require geographic mobility.

An additional program at the Center would be a comprehensive adult education and high school equivalency program. An integral component in this program would be a "high intensity" learning laboratory. These laboratories have proven to add considerable education unity and success to the programs where they have been operated.

It is essential to provide counseling services to link the education and/or training with the actual job placement. A well-structured job counseling and supportive guidance service has proven its worth in other settings. To whatever degree possible, these services should be performed by carefully trained educational counselors who are experts in communication skills. An overriding precept for counselors might be to perform in a manner that sends out the signal of a "non-emotional manifestation of caring." The degree that this signal would receive by the target population should influence, in fact, the degree with which adults move effectively from where they are to where they want to go.

In conclusion, an educational outreach plan for undereducated adults residing in the Appalachian region is seen as having three necessary components: (1) A positive philosophy based on the questions, "What is to be accomplished?" and "How must society support this effort if it is to be accomplished?" (2) A definition of the target population and the desired outcome of his involvement in an educational endeavor; and (3) A form of outreach that attends to communication difficulties among service agencies and the target population.

An outreach plan for the Appalachian region is proposed which has five stages: a "softening-up" or publicity stage; a first contact through home-delivered services; a first step away from the home into a counseling situation; a full-blown basic and vocational education situation; and finally, an independent use of services on the part of the target population.

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[5]White Plains Adult Education Center, A Guide for Establishing a Learning Laboratory.

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AN ABE NUTRITION CURRICULUM

*Katharine P. Riddle**

A. INTRODUCTION

Nutrition is often viewed by adult basic educators, when they consider the total needs of their students, as being a very important part of their total curriculum. But it often gets overlooked because it does not easily fall into one or another of the five subject-matter areas covered by the GED. And, since a major objective of ABE students has been to pass the GED examination, thus qualifying them for various specialized vocational training as well as many entry-level jobs, nutrition is easily pushed into a second priority position.

Similarly, in the various government departments, nutrition is not the primary concern of any one department. But, at the White House Conference on Food, Nutrition, and Health, in December 1969, its significance did begin to dawn upon adults in a new way. Three thousand persons of widely diverse educational, economic, and ethnic backgrounds began to comprehend issues regarding the importance of food, which heretofore has either angered them or turned them off. This, in itself, was an important experience of adult education. Individuals, poor and non-poor, faced and met each other on grounds of equal status. Each was heard and in the process was free to question his own cliches and establish new bases of opinions. Each began to realize that adequate amounts of proper food is the right of all people and that hunger, from whatever cause, is a common enemy which robs all of us of our country's greatest potential, human capacity and capability!

What does it mean when we estimate that 25 million persons in our country are living below the poverty level? It means they do not have any food. It means that one of every seven Americans has health problems which often render him incapable of holding a job. It means that the children who are born into and grow up in this poverty are probably not getting the nourishment necessary to lay down adequate body structure. Consequently, it means that there is a high possibility that the child's learning ability is being impaired, that the child is likely to grow unable to carry out the tasks which would enable him to solve his own problems and contribute to community betterment. We can thus see some of the causes as to why those who "have" get more and those who "have not" lose even the initiative which a new generation can bring.

We are finding out in grim terms that the ability to learn and to carry out tasks is significantly related to the adequacy of nutritional intake! (1) We are sensing our own folly in allowing poverty and malnutrition to continue.

As we turn our thinking about the problems of hunger and malnutrition to the specific situation within Appalachia, we recognize a congeries of interrelated causes and effects. These can be singularly identified as:

1. Lack of food--due to lack of arable land, difficulty of transportation, poor weather, or lack of money.

2. Lack of Money--due to scarcity of jobs, lack of transportation to jobs, exploitation of natural resources by outsiders, and lack of knowledge of how to get employment. When money is available, it does not always go first for food.

3. Lack of knowledge of how to choose

Mrs. Riddle is Nutritionist with the Kentucky State Department of Health and Chairwoman of Kentucky Nutrition Council. She has a vast experience in teaching and nutrition programs in various countries. She is also a member of the White House Conference on Food, Nutrition, and Health.

and use available food to nutritional advantage; or of how to utilize the resource help that would enable securing food and/or money for food--due to scattered population, difficulty of access to educational facilities, and pride and loyalty to cultural heritage and value system.

4. Too many mouths to feed--due to lack of knowledge or unwillingness to participate in family planning, on the one hand, and cultural encouragement for having large families, on the other hand.

5. Attitudes on the part of many of those who have "made it" and are now faced with the above problems--attitudes which are intolerant of the value systems of the "poor," or which indicate unwillingness to help.

Any educational program aimed at improving the nutritional levels of the citizens of this area must take into account not one, but all of these causes. Any change in one will affect the others. The educator who is working for nutritional improvements needs to be aware that when improvement (change) takes place in any one area, the problem shifts and the educational effort must likewise be shifted, to keep it pertinent. Such educational effort includes cognitive knowledge, and skills and attitudes of people.

There are many agencies which are working for nutritional improvements in Appalachia. Some of the programs provide food or money (stamps) for food. The Commodity Foods program supplies families with actual food--in regulated variety and amounts designed to provide nourishing meals. The Food Stamp program allows individual choice in marketing. The School Lunch and School Breakfast programs are geared to supplying 1/3 to 1/2 the daily food requirements of each child. All three of these programs, while aimed at meeting the problem of "Lack of Food," are also concerned about an educational component--to let people know the kinds and amounts of food that are important to health.

But the following questions continually arise: "How do you get people to choose the foods they need?" These questions must sound very familiar to the educator of adults--for they are questions of concern in the total curriculum planning process.

The challenge to the Adult Basic Education Program, as I see it, is to keep together those aspects that are often considered separately but which are really inseparable. Eating nutritious food is essential for learning. But how can one eat nutritious food if one doesn't first learn what food is nutritious? This sounds like the egg or the chicken--which came first. But actually there is a way for adult basic education to begin--and that is by educating the adult about feeding his child, who is dependent upon him for food. Adult Basic Education has the expertise on HOW this education should take place. The question is, "Will it pursue this complete subject matter for all its students?"

B. THE NEED FOR A CURRICULUM

Nutrition--food--eating--are not the most simple subjects to teach. They are bound up with human needs, and, according to Abraham Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs," (2) food is an essential need, primarily for physical survival and for any growth or development (mental and physical). Once the (A) level of survival is satisfactorily met, Maslow shows that the securing of food regularly is essential to meeting man's (B) Safety-Level needs. At this level a person may also discriminate as to the kinds of food he considers essential to meet psychological, as well as physical, Safety-Level needs. Then it is highly likely that the eating of certain kinds of food, which "our folk" or "our kin" eat, satisfies some of the next level, (C) Belonging-Level-Needs. Certainly the eating

of food in a social situation enhances one's sense of belonging, being loved and provided for. The meaning of food, therefore, is closely tied to the interpersonal, relational family structure. Once these three levels of needs are met, a person moves on up into the level of (D) meeting "esteem" needs. Here it is interesting to speculate how probable it is that the human ability to esteem oneself and others also includes the ability to respect the food habits and choices of others and be willing to try them. It is at this level, it seems to me, that changes in food practices are likely to occur.

Ironically, one very definite nutritional change (or change in eating habits) has occurred in Appalachia as a result of radio and TV advertising and the availability of transportation; namely, the consumption of carbonated beverages, snack foods, and candy has increased significantly. This is partly due to availability of money in the form of welfare checks and food stamps. But it is also an attempt to follow what is being emphasized by all advertising media as "the thing to do." However, this change has resulted in the consumption of "empty calories," which have little or no nutritional benefit and do much harm to teeth. But the fact that change in eating habits has occurred certainly emphasizes the importance of radio and television advertising. Thus, it causes us to consider how to use these same media in ways to implement more desirable nutritional change. (3)

But Maslow's concept of the Hierarchy of Needs relates to a concept of motivation, by considering that the emphasis to meet our basic needs becomes a motivational force which keeps us going. Only as the basic levels of needs are satisfied does a person become aware of and then attempts to satisfy the higher levels of needs. Lower level needs must be regularly met before the higher order needs may emerge. People need to have a way of getting an ample supply of food regularly before they will start to think about what kinds of food are necessary or what it means to them. And lest we condemn outright the spending of money on "empty calorie" food, we must stop and admit that probably the needs for belonging and esteem are being met through these snack foods. Recognizing this, we get a vantage point from which to consider "what can be done about it."

C. AGENCIES AND THEIR CURRICULA

Adult Basic Education programs are not the only adult programs concerned about nutrition education. The Cooperative Extension Service is stressing nutrition in its programs of 4H, Homemaker Clubs, and, more recently, in the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program, using Nutrition aides (or assistants). These aides go into homes and help mothers with planning their meals and using food wisely. Cooperative Extension has designated that "the hard-to-reach poor represent the population where the greatest program impact is needed and must be made." And they recognize that "a particularly acute weakness is the inappropriateness of much of the printed material distributed to homemakers." (4) Other government agencies, such as Public Health and Public Assistance, train their staffs to be able to help people in understanding nutritional implications of the food they feed their families.

Since each of these agencies is involved in nutritional education, it occasionally happens, however, that several agencies try to help the same family. Sometimes they offer conflicting messages, or urge stress on different practices. To avoid this local duplication calls for coordination of programs in order to increase the educational impact. The coordinating role may be played by Adult Basic Education.

To accomplish such coordination, a curriculum should be devised at each of two levels:

1. At the basic level, for the adult who has had little or no formal education, the emphasis would be on "Criterion Tasks"--to be enlarged upon later in this paper.

2. At the interpretive level for the teacher of those at the basic level, the emphasis would be on interpreting the basic nutrition facts and skills and the central importance of nutrition to any human growth, development or change, to those adult learners not yet informed. This curriculum would include understanding the process of change, the building of value systems, and would require the interpreter to have an attitudinal change of a willingness to see and accept people as they are, and to confront issues with understanding and compassion.

In working for nutritional change, the agencies involved have seldom enlisted those who have nutritional deficiencies in the process of planning for change. For this reason some of the more advanced "criterion tasks" for the adult learner at the basic level should include those of a problem solving variety, whereby the adult becomes an equal member of the team planning for nutritional improvement in the community.

There is a wide opportunity for ABE professionals to provide training to both paid and volunteer leaders--teacher, trainers, aides, sub-professional workers in involving people in discovering their own needs and how to go about meeting them. Such training will greatly reduce the arrogance of assuming that "I know it and you don't."

D. A PROPOSED ABE NUTRITIONAL CURRICULUM

These basic concepts are:

1. Nutrition is the food you eat and how the body uses it.

   We eat food to live, to grow, to keep healthy and well, and to get energy for work and play.

2. Food is made up of different nutrients needed for growth and health.

   All nutrients needed by the body are available through food.
   Many kinds and combinations of food can lead to a well-balanced diet.
   No food, by itself has all the nutrients needed for full growth and health.
   Each nutrient has specific uses in the body.
   Most nutrients do their best work in the body when teamed with other nutrients.

3. All persons, throughout life, have need for the same nutrients, but in varying amounts.

   The amounts of nutrients needed are influenced by age, sex, size, activities, and state of health.
   Suggestions for the kinds and amounts of food needed are made by trained scientists.

4. The way food is handled influences the amount of nutrients in food, its safety, appearance, and taste.

   Handling means everything that happens to food while it is being grown, processed, stored, and prepared for eating.

Adult Basic Education usually is subdivided into three levels: Level I includes those from non-readers to those who function at a 3rd grade level. Level II encompasses those who function at the equivalents of grades 4, 5, and 6. Level III embraces those who function from 7th to 12th grade level.

There is no need to use technical nutrition terminology with either Level I or Level II learners, but each part of the curriculum is related to the foods in the Daily Food Guide and the Basic Four Food Groups (6), an adequate amount of each of which is daily required for good nutritional health. The "criterion tasks" for each level are presented in outline form and need to be considered, adapted, and expanded into

activities by those persons responsible for the teaching, i.e., the interpreters. The units can be taught by using and preparing foods talked about, thereby giving the learner increased understanding of both the importance of food and of the many varied ways food can bring health and satisfaction.

Level I Learners--Possible "Criterion Tasks" for each adult:

1. To recall and list all items of food and drink consumed in the preceding 24-hour period.

   To compare this list with the Daily Food Guide, noting which of the Four Basic Food Groups were undereaten.

   To state what this comparison means in terms of what values to the body are not being met if a certain Food Group is not eaten.

Learning steps:

a. Practice remembering and listing all the food that was eaten and liquids drunk in the 24 hours just past. Pay attention to what is eaten each day, and the number of servings or glasses or cups. Note likes and dislikes.

b. Become familiar with the Four Basic Food Groups (6) using illustrations, foods, models, graphs, or other methods to group food according to the poster, in order to:

   (1) Understand which foods are in each group.

   (2) Understand the amounts of each kind of food suggested.

   (3) Understand at least two reasons why the foods are grouped together in each group.

c. Translate the foods suggested in the Four Basic Food Groups into amounts of each food or each kind of food which a person should eat daily in order to be sure he or she is eating what is needed for health and growth.

   (1) Working with the models or food, learn and demonstrate (a) the amounts of each food needed in each of the Four Basic Food Groups, and (b) the varieties of food in each group.

   (2) Rearrange these into the possible meal patterns, dividing the Four Groups into three sections for three meals (possibly four sections if snacks are considered).

d. Taking one of the practice efforts at remembering the food eaten in the preceding 24 hours, compare it to what is known about the Basic Four Groups in either c.(1) or c.(2) above. Note how what was eaten compares to the suggested--in which areas has not enough been eaten, and in which areas too much?

e. Using the reasons agreed on in b.(3) above, decide what values the body is not getting when a particular one of the Four Basic Groups is not eaten (or undereaten).

f. Discuss ways in which the individual can balance out these four areas so that each is well represented in each day's food. Which foods might be eaten? Which foods omitted?

g. Work out a contract for trying at least one significant change of eating pattern for a week and then report back the results.

2. To estimate the cost of food eaten in the preceding 24-hour period. To estimate the least expensive way of eating food which fulfills the pattern of the Basic Four.

Learning steps:

a. Write down costs per unit--can, pound, quart, etc., of all foods eaten in the past 24 hours. Divide these unit costs by actual amount eaten. Total the cost for the day.

b. Taking the decisions reached in 1.f. above, find out the unit costs and portion costs of the actual food which would be desirable for each person to add to his diet.(7)

c. Find out which are the more expensive and less expensive foods which will complete the Four Food Groups. (e.g., compare costs of various forms of milk, fresh and canned or frozen vegetables, etc.) Emphasis is more on what will be eaten and tried and the cost if it is tried. This could develop into a discussion on varieties of food.

d. For each individual, determine what is the least expensive way of meeting the standards of the Daily Food Guide--and discuss how possible this is.

3. To demonstrate ability to adjust the Daily Food Guide (which is stated in adult terms) to meet the special requirements of infants and expectant mothers.(8)

This unit should be taught either by or in conjunction with a nutritionist from the Health Department or a professionally trained person prepared to discuss and prepare actual foods and amounts and the special preparation of them for infants. This unit is projected with specific tasks in mind--that of being able to choose which foods are essential for two population groups which need special attention and whose needs are not covered by the Daily Food Guide as taught in Unit 1. These age groups are especially "vulnerable" to malnutrition.

NOTE: Plans for Level II and III are based on the assumption that the previous level learnings have been covered first.

Level II Learners--Possible "Criterion Tasks" for each adult:

1. To identify five contributions of nutrition (food) to life and living by giving illustrations of what happens when we get adequate nutrition.

We are more pleasant people.
We grow.
We have energy for work and play.
We look better and feel better (health).
We are able to learn.

2. To construct meal plans from the Daily Food Guide which will meet the special food requirements of:

Teenage boys and girls
Elderly
The overweight
Active men and women
Someone from a different cultural eating pattern

3. To compare the costs of snack foods, carbonated beverages, and candy by listing price per ounce, and comparing these with price per ounce of items on the Daily Food Guide, which might substitute as snacks.

4. To identify his own food likes and dislikes, possible reasons for them, and whether these are benefiting or harming his own bodily nutrition.

5. To identify (a) sources of food, (b) various ways of storing and preserving food until it is needed for eating, and (c) various methods of preparing food for eating. To compare the effect that different methods of preparing food have on the nutritional value received by the person eating it.

Level III Learners--Possible "Criterion Tasks" for each adult:

1. To identify the functions of Vitamins A, B1, B2, C, D, and minerals, Calcium and Iron, in the nutrition of the body, and list the main food sources for each. (7 c.-p. 6 and 7) and (11 - p. 2-8)

2. To compare the value of products made with enriched flour and those made with unenriched flour, and to list the types of products on the market which are probably made with each kind of flour.

3. To read the labels of prepared products, identify the order in which each ingredient is listed, and the meaning of this order.

4. To construct useful "rule of thumb" methods for determining good food buys by pulling together the learnings from 1, 2, and 3 above with learnings from other levels, such as Level I-2 and Level II-3.

5. To use Tables of Food Value (12) and Tables of Recommended Dietary Allowances (13) to check on the adequacy of meals they plan for their families.

6. To construct games and quizzes which can be used with children to interest them in what food does for us.

7. To list and describe four ways in which food meets human needs in more than a physiological way (suggest using Maslow's Hierarchy of Human needs).

8. To demonstrate understanding of problem solving by describing a problem situation related to food and eating and how he would work on it for optimum solution.

E. A FINAL NOTE

Concern for a curriculum which is of practical learnable value to the adult learner and interest in new instructional methodology are expressed in conference reports and journals. Research in consumer and homemaking education cited in the bibliography has direct bearing to the concern of this paper.

Reference has also been made to the training of volunteers and auxiliary personnel to teach classes and lead projects. A workshop on "The Utilization and Training of Auxiliary Personnel in Home Economics," held October 12-22, 1969, at the Nebraska Center for Continuing Education, has resulted in some useful papers published in February, 1970, issue of Journal of Home Economics. Another source of useful information giving insights into possible new approaches to teaching in the North Central Region is the Study of Diets of Preschool Children. (15) Especially interesting is the statement from the summary of the article, entitled: "Nutrition Knowledge and Attitudes Of Mothers." (16)

> *Mothers of children whose diets were classified in the lowest 10 percent with respect to nutritional quality had a relatively low level of nutritional knowledge and unfavorable attitudes toward meal planning and food preparation and highly permissive attitude toward the eating behavior of children.*

Such attitudes and such eating behavior is what the foregoing ABE Nutrition Curriculum is designed to counter.

Hopefully, then, the complex issue of education for better nutrition can best be tackled by taking into account all that is known about the causes of malnutrition and hunger as well as all we know about instructional methodology and the readiness of adult learners. The knowledge about nutrition, and also the skills of preparing and serving food for different family members, can be learned.

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2. Maslow, Abraham S., Motivation and Personality.

3. Source Book on Food Practices. Nutritional Dairy Council, Chicago, Illinois 60606.

4. Program Evaluation (January to July 1969) Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program, Federal Extension Service, USDA. p. 19 and 13.

5. Several Handbooks for Training Volunteers are available:

   "You Can Help Fight Hunger in America: Food Stamp Handbook for Volunteers," Food and Nutrition Service (FNS-1), USDA
   "Working with the Disadvantaged," Federal Extension Service, (PA-891), USDA.

6. Food for Thrifty Families. Teaching Materials for Low-Income Families. Complete kit of 29 publications including Daily Food Guide. $1.50 per kit. Available through Food and Nutrition Service or Consumer Marketing Service, USDA. Handouts suitable for low reading ability.

   What to Feed Your Family (with leader's guide), available from National Dairy Council, Chicago, Illinois 60606 (a folder very simply prepared).

7. Several publications which might be helpful to the teacher:

   a. "Buy Food Wisely" by Minerva Murphy, University of Kentucky Cooperative Extension Service, Agriculture and Home Economics. Mimeo--9 pages.
   b. "Food Makes the Difference." Ideas for economy-minded families. PA-934, USDA, October 1969, 4 pages.
   c. Nutrition Handbook for Family Food Counseling. National Dairy Council, Chicago, Illinois 60606. 1968, 32 pages, 30 cents.

8. Feeding Little Folks (B-310) and
   Food Before Six (B5), National Dairy Council Publications, Chicago, Illinois 60606
   Infant Care and Your Baby's First Year, Children's Bureau Publications available through Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 20402
   The Nutrition Divisions of State Health Departments have good publications on special food guides for Infants and Pregnant Mothers.
   Project Head Start Nutrition Kit.

9. Four popular sources of information for this unit are:

   a. Easy Meals that Please (together with Leader's Guide) is written with words familiar to persons in low-income families. National Dairy Council, Chicago, Illinois 60606.
   b. Your Guide to Good Eating and How to Use it, together with Guide for Teacher and other Leaders, National Dairy Council, Chicago, Illinois 60606.
   c. Nutrition, Food at Work for You, Home and Garden Bulletin 1-S, USDA.
   d. Food for Fitness--A Daily Food Guide, leaflet No. 424, USDA.

Individualized materials aimed at Teenagers, the Elderly, and the Overweight are available from National Dairy Council and Health Departments.

10. Keeping Food Safe to Eat, a guide for Homemakers, Home and Garden Bulletin, 6 2 cents, USDA.

Conserving the Nutritive Values in Foods, USDA, Home and Garden Bulletin No. 90, USDA.

11. Family Fare: Food management and recipes. Home and Garden Bulletin No. 1, USDA.

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UPO Box 1353 Morehead State University Morehead, Kentucky 40351